CHANGES IN PERCEPTUAL FIELD CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENTS IN GESTALT-ORIENTED TRAINING

By

MARGARET PATTON KORB

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Our intention is to affirm this life, not to bring order out of a chaos nor to suggest improvements in creation, but simply to wake up to the very life we're living, which is so excellent once one gets one's mind and one's desires out of its way and lets it act of its own accord.

--John Cage

DEDICATION

I dedicate this oeuvre to myself. To have pulled it off at this stage of my journey is a tribute to life itself which defies all of our feeble attempts to capture and control it, to define and order it according to even thoughtfully arrived at taxonomies. I did it myself with the loving support of the members of my committee, my family, and my friends.

Working with Dr. Richard H. Johnson, chairman of my committee, was a stimulus to my often flagging energies and a constant delight.

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Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate
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MARGARET PATTON KORB

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Major Department: Counselor Education

This study assessed the changes in perceptual field characteristics of thirty-two graduate-level counselors-in-training at the University of Florida who experienced three months of twice-weekly training sessions in Gestalt therapy theory and practice. Training included awareness of self, of intuitive perceptions of others, of projections, and of clarity and directness of verbal expression. This training is demonstrated to be training in personal congruence as defined by Rogers, or in the effective use of one's self in counseling or teaching as described by Combs.

Perceptual change in the direction noted as characteristic of effectiveness was hypothesized on these dimensions: internal frame of reference; perceptions of self as with people, of others as able, of goals as holistic; counseling orientation as grounded, process-related, and in-depth. Data for the two-cell study were written protocols from which the target perceptual dimensions were measured inferentially on a 7-point scale by three trained raters. Interrater reliability for the seven dimensions ranged from .52 to .74.

Data analysis indicated non-significant change in the hypothesized direction on four of the perceptual dimensions: in-depth experiencing; holistic approach; groundedness; self as with people. Non-significant change in a

negative direction was observed on perceptions of others as able, internal frame of reference, and process orientation to counseling. Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test was the chosen statistic, with .025 as the designated significance level, direction predicted.

Change in the predicted direction was found on the seven general dimensions of the POI using the Wilcoxon Test with significant change (.025 level, direction predicted) on five of them: time competence, inner directed, valuing, self-perception, and interpersonal sensitivity. The summed change data indicated positive and significant change ($p > .0002$). Data from the congruence subscale of the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory were used to correlate peer perceptions of congruence with the POI and PDS post-training data. Non-significant positive results were obtained using Spearman Rho statistic, .01 level of significance direction predicted.

Implications of the results of the data analysis are discussed.

Chapter I

THE FOCUS, BACKGROUND, AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Introduction

The focus for this study is upon changes in the perceptual field of the counselor-in-training that occur during training. The term counselor is the primary term used in this paper to designate professionals who engage in counseling, guidance, or psychotherapy, although currently some emphasis is being placed on separation of therapy, which is considered remedial in nature, from the counseling that takes place in the school environment (i.e., Aubrey, 1969).

Specifically, I address the issue of perceptual changes in students who have experienced one quarter (three months) of training in Gestalt therapy theory and practice as a part of their total training. The hypothesis tested is that during the course of one quarter of graduate-level training which included a course in Gestalt therapy training the perceptual field of each student would change significantly in the direction designated as characteristic of the perceptual field organization of effective counselors (Combs, 1969). Seven dimensions of the perceptual field as formulated by Swanson (1975) were measured.

The goal of counselor education or training programs is to graduate effective, that is, skillful and competent, counselors. Although the behaviors relating to skill and competence have not been delineated clearly (Cottingham, 1974), the global construct of effectiveness as measured by peer judgments, judgments of supervisors, "neutral" expert judgments, and any combination of

these has been the criterion measure for numerous studies (see the literature review of Walton and Sweeney, 1969). Hurst and Jensen (1968) move effectiveness from the context of observable behavior when they note that,

> Research evidence has been accumulating suggesting that the crucial elements of a counselor's effectiveness are not his use of a given technique or his adoption of a particular theory. Rather, effective counseling relationships seem more dependent upon the nature of the helper's attitudes and his ways of perceiving himself, his client, and his goals. (p. 13)

Their statement outlines the phenomenological point of view that I espouse in this study. The succinct statement of Combs (1964) regarding effectiveness is the context: "An effective professional worker is not an individual who has learned to behave in a certain prescribed fashion, rather he is an individual who has learned to use his unique self effectively" (p. 370).

For this study effectiveness is taken to be a function of the characteristic ways in which the counselor's perceptual field is organized (Combs and Snygg, 1959). Effective counselors have been shown to have a common general frame of reference and common ways of perceiving themselves, other persons, and the purpose of the helping task (Combs, 1969). One desired result of the work of the educators of counselors, then, becomes the changing of the perceptual fields of counselors-in-training in the directions designated as characteristic of effectiveness.

It seems reasonable to assume that changes in the perceptual fields of students occur in training programs; two studies (Schoch, 1965; McKinnon, 1969) indicate that such changes, in fact, do occur. Critical questions for the counselor educator are (1) what experiences may effect the desired changes, and (2) do designed training experiences have the desired effect on the perceptual fields of those being trained.

While the training of counselors has been under constant scrutiny, criticism, and revision, increasingly critical attention has been evident in the past two decades (Arbuckle, 1958; Joslin, 1965; Carkhuff, 1967, 1972; Gross, 1971; Tyler, 1972, Zifferblatt, 1972). Carkhuff (1969) can be cited as an example: "It is clear that traditional counseling and clinical training programs of all kinds have simply not established their efficacy in terms of client benefits" (p. 8). Blocker and Wolleat (1972) applaud ". . . sweeping (and we feel accurate) condemnations of counselor education . . . . The need for new models of counselor education is obvious" (p. 40). Cottingham (1974) notes unresolved issues in nearly every facet of counselor education programs -- basic assumptions, desired outcome behaviors for students, skills and competencies that are goals for training.

Critics point to a need for a balance between academic knowledge which educational criteria demand and other counselor variables -- "what the counselor can do with what he knows" (Arbuckle, 1958), "emotional or attitudinal factors" (Joslin, 1965), or "self-knowledge" (Gross, 1971). Clearly there are justified academic criteria for graduation from an educational institution; a counselor must "know" certain things and must be able to speak and write clearly and cogently about what he "knows." Competency-based training programs, e.g., Stanford University (Krumboltz, Thoresen, and Zifferblatt, 1972), Michigan State University (Winborn, Hinds, and Stewart, 1971), and the University of California at Santa Barbara (Hosford, 1971), have been instituted in an effort to define and evaluate counselor knowledge and behavior. Reports of these programs indicate that they have not been evaluated adequately. In the absence of such critical data, I return to Combs (1969) who put such criteria in a phenomenological context: "The key to the nature of effective helping relationships is not to be found in what the helper knows or in the methods he uses" (p. 9).

Beginning with Fiedler (1950) and Heine (1950), continuing with Rogers (1957, 1958, 1959, 1962) and on to Frank (1972) the centrality of and an outline for a "good" counseling relationship has emerged. Both Fiedler and Heine point out that the theoretical orientation of the counselor is not a critical factor. Rogers concludes that it is ". . . the attitudes of the helping person on the one hand and . . . the perceptions of the relationship by the 'helpee' on the other . . ." that have to do with the quality of the relationship. For Frank, ". . . major determinants of therapeutic success lie in personal qualities or attitudes of patients and therapists." Since the perceptions or attitudes of clients are a factor in the counseling situation itself, one clear focus for a training program must be the qualities, perceptions, and attitudes of the counselor.

Rogers outlined the basic assumptions for therapy and for much of the current counselor training when he postulated ". . . the three necessary and sufficient conditions of therapeutic personality change" (Rogers, 1957):

1. The therapist is congruent or integrated in the relationship.

2. The therapist experiences unconditional positive regard for the client.

3. The therapist experiences an empathic understanding of the client's internal frame of reference and endeavors to communicate this experience to the client.

Students of Rogers' theories who were interested in counselor training, such as Truax and Carkhuff, began training with item #3, empathic understanding, or training of responses that might reflect empathic understanding. Assessment measures for each of the three conditions were developed but training was based primarily on empathic understanding. Carkhuff (1967) indicates that other kinds of training must be explored; rather than teaching techniques or

shaping behaviors, educators may need to deal with "a way of life, a way of living effectively in facilitating others and ourselves" (p. 12). Subsequent writings (Carkhuff and Berenson, 1969; Carkhuff, Friel, and Kratochvil, 1970) focus on the change in emphasis:

> [We have] expanded our models to incorporate more action-oriented dimensions of counselor genuineness and self-disclosure, confrontation, and immediacy, conditions in which the counselor acts upon his own personal experience of what is going on within and between counselor and counselee. (Carkhuff and Berenson, 1969, p. 25)

Here Carkhuff and Berenson take training into the area of personal congruence -- the "self-as-instrument" model -- being dealt with in this paper, although in his own training program Carkhuff has moved into a skill-building model (Carkhuff, 1972).

Truax's later work dealt with what he called reciprocal affect: "If we ourselves are open, self-congruent, transparent, spontaneously real, or in a word, genuine, then we elicit these same qualities in others" (Truax, 1971). He was exploring the assumption that ". . . it is congruence or genuineness that is directly causative of therapeutic client change," indicating that the evidence ". . . is consistent with, but does not provide direct confirmation of that assumption." Rogers himself, in discussing learning from a background of counseling, states that "perhaps the most basic of these essential attitudes [which facilitate learning] is realness or genuineness" (Rogers, 1969). Others concur in placing a high value upon the attribute here called personal congruence (Gendlin, 1967; May, 1961; Bugental, 1962, 1968; Perls, 1969a).

At the present time, then, there appears to be some convergence of attention on the person, the attitudes, and perceptions of the counselor-in-training as a focus for training programs. There also appears to be a lack of clarity and direction — certainly of definitive research -- as to the

effecting of desired changes in students. Such a situation presents fertile soil for the emergence of different approaches to training.

In recent years the Gestalt approach to counseling has taken an increasingly important place among the theories and practices of counseling. Perls initiated a program of training for professionals about 15 years ago (Simkin, 1974); at present, such training is being carried out in Gestalt Institutes in major population centers across the country. The graduate-level training program at the University of Florida is the only program of its kind (see the description in Chapter III; Van de Riet, 1974b); this study is an important first assessment of the effectiveness of Gestalt-oriented training in a design and with instrumentation that seem appropriate to the phenomenological, existential, and organismic bases.

In this paper it is demonstrated that training in the Gestalt approach to counseling (Perls, 1969a, 1969b) is training in personal congruence (Rogers, 1959); that is, training in the effective use of one's self in a therapeutic relationship (Combs, 1969, 1964, 1969). Such training, then, is related to change in general attitudes and frame of reference and in ways of perceiving self, others, and the nature of the therapeutic task, as Combs has postulated. In succeeding sections of this chapter, I discuss the theoretical synthesis of the work of Perls, Rogers, and Combs. Such a synthesis is effected in the construct of personal congruence with its components of pre-conscious intuitive processes, conscious awarenesses and thought processes, and the accurate symbolization of these processes in verbal and body language behavior. Training in the Gestalt approach is training in these organismic factors of personal congruence; changes affected by training may be reflected in changes in perceptual organization.

One further statement is needed for clarification. My bias is holistic. My assumption in this paper is that man is a whole human being (a "soma," in Hanna's terms, 1970), that he functions out of continua of experience and capability that are anchored in polarities, both of which are necessary for his health and growth. While this study focuses upon pre-conscious or intuitive processes related to the individual's perceptual field, I also affirm the conscious, reasoning, cognitive processes. The latter processes must be set aside in order for the intuitive processes to emerge into awareness; however, the conscious reasoning processes are neither denied nor downgraded. Both modes of organizing and structuring the data of the world with which a human being interacts are necessary. Both are "rational," that is, "logical" processes, one pre-conscious and one conscious. The effective counselor must function effectively in both modes. Further, while each human being prefers one mode over the other (Jung, 1968), and has been educated to rely primarily on the conscious reasoning process, both modes are potentially available to each human being within limits that are not yet known.

Definition of Terms

Before detailing the organismic factors which form the theoretical basis for the study, I shall define key terms. These definitions are stated holistically and phenomenologically, in keeping with the philosophical approach I espouse.

Organism. The total experiencing, continuously changing human being, continuously interacting with his environment.

Personal Congruence. The momentary state in which the awareness of the self equals the actual subjective experiencing of the organism and is accurately symbolized in verbal and/or body language (Rogers, 1957); not a personality

characteristic; not an ideal to be striven for; a state of self-awareness that may also be perceived as congruence by another. "[The therapist's] actual experience accurately represented by his awareness of himself. It is the opposite of presenting a facade, either knowingly or unknowingly" (Rogers, 1957, p. 97). Also called "authenticity" (Bugental, 1965).

Empathic knowledge. The subjective experience of another person; the perception of the internal frame of reference of another person; hypotheses about the subjective field of the other; term used by Rogers (1959). Empathic knowledge is pre-conscious and is available to awareness; it may emerge as an intuition.

Pre-conscious. A general term chosen here to refer to knowing that is not conscious but is potentially available to conscious awareness; not used in anyway synonymous with its use in any other theoretical system.

Internal frame of reference. The subjective, inner realm or field of experience; term used by Rogers (1959).

Intuition. The event that occurs when an individual reaches a conclusion on the basis of less explicit information than is ordinarily necessary to reach that conclusion (Westcott, 1968); the "aha" phenomenon; the pre-conscious intellectual Gestalt which organizes sensory data and inferences and deductions from these data, then emerges into conscious awareness in its totality.

Gestalt. A wholeness, a completion, an "irreducible phenomenon . . . that disappears if the whole is broken up into its components" (Perls, 1969b). It is differentiated into figure and background.

Experiencing. "The partly unformed stream of feeling that we [as organisms] have every moment . . . the flow of feeling, concretely, to which you can every moment attend inwardly, if you wish" (Gendlin, 1962, p. 3). Experiencing is a subjective, pre-conscious, inner flow.

Awareness. Consciousness of the content of the experiencing process.

Attending. Paying attention to the content of the experiencing process; may be consciously directed or may follow the awareness without conscious volition. Attending to the experiencing of the organism brings awareness (consciousness of the content).

Perception. Sensory impression(s) of the facticity of the environment; can be visual, auditory, tactile, olfactory, gustatory. Also the intellectual Gestalt which can accompany and organize such sensory data; the inferences and deductions made from such data.

Perceptual field. The individual's unique perceptions of himself and the world in which he lives and the significance of these perceptions for the individual who is experiencing; "the entire universe, including himself, as it is experienced by the individual at the moment of action" (Combs and Snygg, 1959, p. 20).

Symbol. Any verbal or body language structure that organizes or defines the content of the experiencing process. A symbol (a word, words, or a body movement) transforms the world of sensory perception into a mental world or a world of meaning.

Symbolization. The process of creating or using verbal or body language structures to "name;" the report or description of experience in order to communicate that experience to self or others.

Projection. Attribution of self states or awarenesses of self states to another person or persons or to other aspects of the environment.

Core constructs. Central organizing cognitions about the self (Kelly, 1955); beliefs about the self and the world and the relatedness between them. May be pre-conscious or conscious.

Organismic Factors in Personal Congruence

Personal congruence as defined here is a personal state, not a personality characteristic. Rogers' (1959) definition is the basis for the following discussion. Personal congruence is the state in which "the self as perceived equals the actual experience of the organism, accurately symbolized" (p. 206). Using this definition, then, there are three factors in personal congruence: (1) the actual experience of the organism, (2) the accurate symbolization of that experience, and (3) the self as perceived. Each of these factors will be dealt with in order in the following discussion.

In his 1959 statement Rogers describes the therapeutic stance in terms that give a perspective on and a lead into an exploration of factor #1, the actual experience of the organism. Rogers speaks of three ways of knowing; the following is a paraphrase of his statement (see pp. 210-212).

1. The subjective experiencing states of the therapist, the subjective experiencing of self states, sensations, perceptions, meanings and memories that are available to the awareness of the individual at a given moment.

2. The subjective experiencing of another person which Rogers called empathic knowledge. Empathic knowledge has two components: first, empathic understanding . . . complete subjectivity about another . . . "to perceive the internal frame of reference of another with accuracy and with the emotional components and meanings which pertain thereto, as if one were the other person" (p. 210); and second, empathic inferences or hypotheses about the subjective field of the other. Empathic knowledge is also available to awareness.

3. The "scientific" or behavioral perception of the other as an "object" without empathic knowledge. For Rogers this way of knowing includes scientific research and study that is determined by pre-set categories and that is to

be checked with colleagues. That way of knowing is valid and important. However, the "scientific" perception of another is also a personal way of knowing another person simply by perceiving data about the other as an object.

The counselor experiences all three ways of knowing at the pre-conscious level. He is constantly receiving data from himself and from his client(s), and from the world in which he functions and with which he interacts. Furthermore, the subjective experiencing of the data is available to his conscious awareness. All of the pre-conscious materials are mediated through the mind in a constant stream of experiencing (Gendlin, 1962) and may be brought into consciousness by attending to that flow.

These pre-conscious experiencings of self and other are available as separate entities. They and the pre-conscious hypotheses or inferences about the experiencings are also available as a totality, an intuition. An intuition, then, is the totality of all or combinations of parts of the three subjective ways of knowing. Westcott (1968) provides an operational definition: "The event that occurs when an individual reaches a conclusion on the basis of less explicit information than is ordinarily required to reach that conclusion" (p. 100). When May (1961) states unequivocally that intuition is the counselor's most important asset he means intuition as thus defined, the ability to make maximum use of minimal conscious information. The counselor must be able to know his client in absence of relevant consciously perceived data; explicitness and redundancy of information are not usually available. This knowing is based on pre-conscious perceptions, experiences of self, and empathic understanding of the other. It appears as a Gestalt, a completed pattern or structure. The premises and perceptions on which it is based are not evident, but have been experienced at the pre-conscious level (Cohn, 1968). Although pre-conscious, the processes in intuition are logical and understandable,

not mystical and magic. Intuitive knowing is a human talent, with logical processes that can be brought into increasingly conscious awareness and increasing accuracy through training.

Basing his work on extensive studies of the intuitive process, Westcott (1968) points out that relevant factors cluster around two poles: personal attributes or states that seem to enhance intuition, and personal attributes or states that seem to inhibit it. Personal attributes that are associated with enhancement of intuition include being curious, mentally alert, watchful, relaxed, interested, spontaneous, feeling-oriented, open to people, and receptive of latent (such as subliminal) stimuli as well as manifest communications. The intuitive person has unblocked and available emotional responses, clarity of perceptions, and exhibits loose constructs. Personal attributes and states that are associated with inhibiting the intuitive process include prejudices, stereotypic perceptions, snobbish attitudes, body tension, anxiety, logical thinking in rigid constructs, narrow appraisals and observations, and projections.

The second factor in the state of being congruent is the accurate symbolization of that experience, the overt verbal or non-verbal expression of inner experience. For example, you speak to me and I listen. As my head turns to you and my eyes focus on you, my body language symbolizes my experience of listening; the movements of my head and my eyes are non-verbal symbols. When you finish speaking I am aware of feeling glad. I say, "I hear you. I feel glad." I verbally symbolize my inner experience. Non-verbal unmonitored body language cues are directly expressive of inner states. The confounding factors in communicating inner experience are in verbal symbolizations.

Philosophers of language describe man as the symbol-making and symbol-using/misusing animal. In so doing they refer to man's capability of divorcing

his verbalizations from his inner experiencing, an extremely useful capability and also a factor in much pathological behavior. Philosophers note two differing verbal processes, related to the intuitive and to the conscious cognitive reasoning processes noted earlier. Man's ability to verbalize his intuitive processes in his "myth-making genius" (Cassirer, 1944) or his "pure language" capability (Merleau-Ponty, 1962). This is the process of "naming" that transforms the world of sense impressions into a mental world, a world of meaning. It is a creative function, the accurate verbal symbolization of the experiencing self.

This creative function must be distinguished from a very different verbal behavior -- verbalizations that are not connected with the inner flow of experiencing, or ritual verbal behaviors that are related to some social interactions. Cassirer (1944) calls this the language of the "theoretical/logical conceptual process"; Merleau-Ponty (1962) calls the verbalizations related to this process "signifying language," language that his significance in social contexts. The ultimate expression of this kind of language is described by Goffman (1967) as "interaction ritual," the "traffic rules of social interaction . . . a characteristic repertoire of face-saving practices" (pp. 12-13). Perls (1969a) refers to this verbal behavior when he speaks of "playing old tapes."

The point to be made is not that such ritual verbal behaviors are to be eschewed; they are necessary for much social interaction. Rather, the point is that accurate symbolization, as used in this paper, is an entirely different verbal behavior, the creation of meaning through accurately symbolizing the experiencing of any moment in verbal and non-verbal behavior that arises out of that experiencing and uniquely refers to that experiencing.

The personal behaviors just listed and described can be ordered in

many different ways. For purposes of training, the appropriate order appears to be according to (1) the subjective and (2) the objective (overt) organismic processes involved; that is, perceptions, cognitions, emotions, attitudes or "sets," body states, and verbalizations. Figure 1 lists these processes and the states that are associated with their enhancement or inhibition.

Processes	Enhancement	Inhibition
Perceptions	clear, not narrow, open	stereotypic
Cognitions	mentally alert, loose constructs	logical, analytic thinking, rigid constructs
Emotions	unblocked, open, available	blocked, anxious
Attitudes	curious, watchful, interested, alert, spontaneous, receptive	snobbish, prejudiced
Bodily states	relaxed, alert	tense
Verbalizations	straight, clear, accurate, non-ritualistic, self-oriented	consciously controlled, ritualistic, logical, rational

Figure 1

Organismic Processes in Personal Congruence

The third factor in personal congruence is "the self as perceived" which equals the actual experience of the organism plus the accurate symbolization of that experience. The "self as perceived" is here defined as the self-concept, or the set of beliefs that a person has about himself, the things he believes to be true about himself, or the ideas and beliefs that lie within the "ego boundary," in Perls' (1969a) terms. Kelly (1955) talks about cognitive "core constructs," and refers to central organizing cognitions, either conscious or

pre-conscious. Landis (1970) denotes the self-concept psychologically as the "phenomenal self" and the "ego (or self) boundary" as,

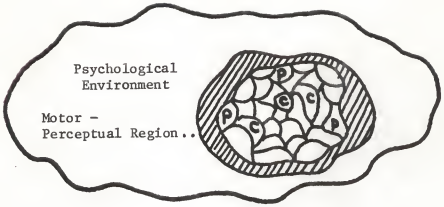
> A structural conception that refers to the boundaries that differentiate the phenomenal self in varying degrees (1) from those aspects of the personality not represented in consciousness, and (2) from the world of reality external to the person. (p. 1)

Landis (1970) diagrams the structure of the person in his psychological environment in such a way as to clarify these constructs. A reproduction of his diagram appears in Figure 2.

None of these theoreticians specifies what the beliefs about the self should be; rather, at any given moment they set limits on the content of the experiencing. The other two components of congruence reflect the content, the actual experience and the accurate symbolization of it.

One inhibitor of congruent behavior remains to be dealt with and needs additional focus, namely projection. For Perls and others, projection is the primary mechanism used in inaccurate intuitions and symbolizations. Projection is the primary mechanism for confusing oneself and confusing communication, for "disowning" aspects of oneself and thus encouraging neuroses (Perls, 1969a). By the mechanism of projection one attributes self states to others; one's ego boundary is extended far beyond one's own skin.

The specific behaviors one uses in projection are both thinking (fantasizing) and speaking. If I project, I imagine that you are feeling or thinking in ways that are, in fact, my own; I talk about myself in second- or third-person language, rather than first person. Accuracy of intuition and symbolization (personal congruence) demands that the projection mechanism be dealt with directly, that a counselor-in-training learn to distinguish his own perceptions, feelings, attitudes, emotions, and cognitions from those of others.



Crosshatching indicates the inner-personal regions. The central inner areas (c) represent the person's deeper motives, interests, attitudes, and goals. The peripheral areas (p) represent needs and interests that ordinarily involve less tension and are considered less private than the more central systems. The width of the boundary zone (the shaded area corresponding to the motor-perceptual region) is used to represent the degree of communication (or connectedness) between the person and his (psychologically experienced) environment. (Landis, 1970, p. 20)

Figure 2

Structure of the Person in His Psychological Environment

Gendlin (1967) most effectively describes the organismic nature of human experiencing, a "bodily sentience, an aspect of body life . . . . Such bodily felt experiencing has meanings, that is to say, we can put symbols into connection with it" (p. 188). At a given moment the words (symbols) that accurately state the inner experience, the "felt meaning" in Gendlin's terms, are heard with,

> An unmistakable, physically felt relief which we express as 'Yes, that's it, that's just what I mean!' This 'connection' between our felt meaning and just these words tells us that the words are referring to, acting upon, and carrying forward our felt meaning. (pp. 189-199)

The "Yes, that's it!" experience is an experience of personal congruence: the self as perceived equals the actual experience accurately symbolized. I have developed a descriptive diagram which appears in Figure 3.

Theoretical Basis for Training: Perls, Rogers, and Combs Synthesized

Combs and Soper (1963) have made what I consider to be a profound contribution to the kind of training being studied here in the "self-as-instrument" concept,

> The use of the helper's self, the peculiar way in which he is able to combine his knowledge and understanding with his own unique ways of putting it into operation in such a fashion as to be helpful to others. (p. 11)

The self is shown in the instantaneous responses made in counseling situations, reactive or proactive, and is an expression of the perceptual field of the counselor. Although Williamson (1962) is not perceptually oriented, his "counselor-as-technique") idea also fits into this framework. Appell (1963) uses the "self-as-resource" term for a similar construct.

Instantaneous responses are instantaneous uses of the unique self of the effective or "adequate" counselor, and here Combs encounters both Rogers and Perls. Combs' instantaneous use of the unique self of the adequate helper can be equated to the personal congruence of the fully functioning counselor of Rogers; the Gestalt therapist as described by Perls is that uniquely adequate helper or personally congruent and fully functioning counselor.

For Combs, adequacy is a function of the individual's phenomenal self (self-perceptions or self-concept) and is characterized by positive self-regard, openness to experience, and ability to establish a wide variety of identifications with other persons, other roles, and other institutions (Combs and Snygg, 1959). For Rogers the self-concept is also significant in determining behavior in the fully functioning person,

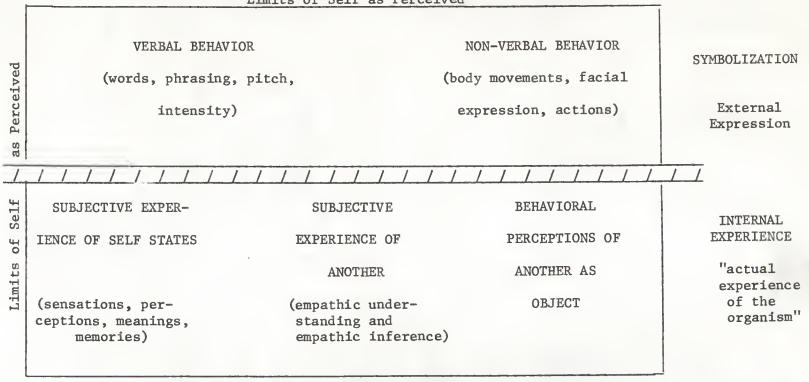


Figure 3

The Components of Personal Congruence

> When self experiences are accurately symbolized, and are included in the self-concept in this accurately symbolized form, then the state is one of congruence of self and experience. If this were completely true of all self experiences, the individual would be a fully functioning person. (Rogers, 1959, p. 206)

The commonality between Combs and Rogers has been fully explored by Fitts (1971).

Perls has presented a clear case for the "self-as-instrument" concept in action in his description of the Gestalt therapist (1969a, 1969b, 1973). The Gestalt therapist is maieutic; he is a catalyst; he is a successful and skillful frustrator, as Rogers (1969) points out that a good teacher must be. The Gestalt therapist has techniques, rules, and games at his disposal (Perls and Levitsky, 1965; Greenwald, 1972); however, his instrument is himself, his honest and clear instantaneous responses. As Perls says, "Anything can happen. As long as you don't structure it [the therapeutic encounter], as long as you work with your intuition, your eyes and ears, then something is bound to happen" (Perls, 1969a, p. 73). The Gestalt orientation and the rhetoric associated with Gestalt therapy may not, probably will not, be appropriate for all counselors; however, the use of oneself as instrument of change in the counseling process is appropriate for effective counselors.

Implicit in Combs and explicit in both Rogers and Perls are two centrally important characteristics of effectiveness as a helper: self-regulation and self-direction. Both must be dealt with in any training program.

Integrative training programs have focused on three principal sources of learning: (1) the didactic or direct shaping of behavior, (2) the experiential base of learning, and (3) the role model for effective counseling which the trainer establishes. The amount of stress given each

component of the training experience and the order in which each occurs are both critical variables. North (1974) indicates that more significant learning takes place when (1) and (2) are reversed; that is, when an experiential/didactic model is used. For the current study the three sources of learning are re-ordered as (1) students learn from their own experiencing, (2) students learn from the role modeling of the trainer(s), and (3) students learn from didactic presentation of underlying theory and assumptions.

The result of the training program used in the current research is conscious awareness of the "Yes, that's it!" experience, the personally congruent state. Within the theoretical model proposed, two aspects of that experience must be differentiated: the intuitive process and the symbolization process. As noted earlier, Rogers speaks of subjective experiencing of self states, subjective experiencing of the other (empathic knowledge), and scientific or behavioral perceptions whether conscious or pre-conscious. These are aspects of the intuitive process; training must deal with these three ways of knowing. Training must also deal with accuracy of symbolization, with the body, and verbal symbols that arise out of the inner experience. Awareness of the states that enhance intuitive functioning must be realized.

Both Rogers and Gendlin point to the mechanism to be used for training. If an intuition is an experience that is put together pre-consciously and bursts into conscious awareness as a Gestalt, a totality, and if the accuracy of the intuition is its important aspect in a therapeutic context, then the training must focus on educating awareness. Accuracy is a factor of conscious awareness. The student needs to know his subjective states (his feelings, his body experiences, his ways of intellectualizing, his fantasy life and imaginative processes). He needs to know how he experiences another person, his empathic understandings of another person. Both of these knowings involve

first the perceptions, the perceptual data about self and other, and second, the inferences made about these data. Third, the data and inferences must be clearly known as relating to self or other.

The process to be activated in educating awarenesses is differentiation. Pre-conscious material must be brought to conscious awareness and aspects of the material must be differentiated. I must differentiate data about myself from data about another person; I must differentiate the data per se from what I imagine or hypothesize about the data. Accuracy demands differentiation of these processes.

Accuracy of symbolization also demands educated awareness through differentiation. The student must learn to know how to allow words to emerge out of the inner experience; he must learn to differentiate these from words that are spoken out of logical ritualized, or stereotypic perceptions.

Training, then, involves these learnings:

Of self

- conscious awareness of body experiences, particularly breathing patterns and body tensions
- conscious awareness of methods of relaxation
- conscious awareness of personal feeling states
- conscious awareness of attending or paying attention to whatever is figure in any Gestalt and of the constantly shifting figure/ground relationships

Of others

- conscious awareness of body and voice languages (body postures, gestures, voice qualities and inflections as distinct from the actual words used)
- conscious awareness of hypotheses made about and meanings attached to body and voice language of others; when accurate, awareness of these constitutes empathy

conscious awareness of differentiating perceptions of data from others, from hypotheses made about these perceptions; accuracy depends upon this distinction

Of symbolization

conscious awareness of the difference in bodily and emotional feelings when verbal symbolizations are accurate and inaccurate (how one feels when saying what is true at any moment)

The goal for the training is conscious awareness of ways in which body, voice, and verbal languages for self and others may be incongruent and the conscious awareness of personal congruence in voice, body, and verbalization related to self states or states of others. Given this goal, the training will include the following: (1) guided experiences in body awareness, (2) guided experiences in fantasy, (3) guided experiences in awareness of organismic processes of contact with the outer environment and withdrawal into contact with inner experience in body and in mind, (4) guided experiences in dialogue with another person, both verbally and non-verbally, (5) guided experiences in accurate disclosure and accurate feedback, and (6) guided experiences in mechanisms used for projection, including the differentiating of perceptual data from fantasies related to the data or thoughts about the data. The underlying awareness is that each individual is self-regulating and self-directing, and that each individual's instantaneous and aware responses can be trusted.

For the past four years I have been working with Dr. Vernon Van de Riet, Associate Professor of Psychology and Clinical Psychology, University of Florida, both as student and as co-leader in developing a graduate-level clinical psychology course in Gestalt therapy theory and practice. The course has been open to students in both clinical psychology and counselor education; the mix of students from both programs has proved to be exceedingly beneficial for the learning process.

While Gestalt therapy is stressed in required readings, the conduct of the course is experiential. The students form a Gestalt therapy workshop for training in which the learning model is first to experience and then to reflect on that experience. Both Dr. Van de Riet and I are active participants as well as leaders in the entire training program; we role-model in the experiences and techniques that are the focus at any time.

The training program is designed to extend over three quarters (nine months) of an academic year. The first quarter (three months) of the program is the focus for the study; the content of experiences involved in that first training period is the conscious awarenesses just outlined. The particulars of the training procedures will be dealt with in Chapter III.

Purpose of the Study

This study supplies information as to the change related to training measured in terms of change in perceptual field of the students. The perceptual field was described by Combs and Snygg (1959) as "the entire universe, including himself, as it is experienced by the individual at the moment of action" (p. 20). A 1959 seminar of faculty and graduate students at the University of Florida began the work of formulating the dimensions of the perceptual field of persons in the helping professions. More than fifty dichotomies were suggested as categories in terms of which the perceptual field might be described. Four major categories each with several dimensions evolved with further analysis. Subsequent work that has been done (Combs and Soper, 1963; Gooding, 1964; Usher, 1966; Brown, 1970; Vonk, 1970; Dellow, 1971; Rotter, 1971; Dedrick, 1972) has underscored these categories as reliable and valid: general frame of reference, perceptions of self, perceptions of others, perceptions of the task of the helper.

For this study the perceptual field was ordered according to the classificatory system and using the dimensions postulated by Swanson (1975):

I. General Frame of Reference

1. Internal - External

Internal: The counselor trainee is sensitive to and concerned with how things seem to others. This sensitivity to and concern for the perceptions (thoughts, values, feelings) of others serves as a basis for understanding the behavior of others.

External: The counselor trainee is insensitive to an unconcerned with how things seem to others. Rather than be concerned with the perceptions (thoughts, values, feelings) of others, the counselor trainee is concerned primarily with external behavior.

II. Perceptions of Other Persons

2. Able - Unable

Able: The counselor trainee sees others as having the necessary capacities to deal effectively with their problems. He trusts their ability to make their own decisions, handle crises, and run their own lives. He notices the strengths as well as the weaknesses in others and focuses on the use of their strengths to overcome weaknesses and bring about positive change.

Unable: The counselor trainee sees others as lacking the necessary capacities to deal effectively with their problems. He doubts their ability to make their own decisions, handle crises, and run their own lives. He focuses on the weaknesses of others; overlooking their strengths, he doubts their capacity to make positive changes.

III. Perceptions of Self

3. With people - Apart from people

With people: The counselor trainee sees himself as a part of mankind, as identified with people and with groups. He perceives himself as deeply and meaningfully related to diverse persons and groups.

Apart from people: The counselor trainee sees himself as apart, removed, withdrawn, or alienated from other people. He perceives himself as not deeply identified or involved with diverse groups or persons.

IV. Perceptions of Purposes

4. Holistic - Detailed
(Combs and Soper, 1963, identify this as concern with larger/ smaller meanings)

Holistic: The counselor trainee is sensitive to and concerned with the basic overriding themes and framework of his experiences. He takes a broad approach, synthesizing. He seeks a grasp of the whole from which the details are organized in order to better understand situations. He is concerned with larger meanings, broader categories.

Detailed: The counselor trainee is primarily concerned with details and specifics. He takes an analytically atomistic approach, focusing on isolated units. Taking a narrow approach to experience, he is concerned with smaller meanings.

Three other dimensions were included, categorized under general frame of reference. These three were developed by Swanson out of his studies of the intuitive process of the counselor (see his discussion); I selected them as target dimensions for this study because of their direct relevance to the training in the Gestalt approach.

5. Grounded - Ungrounded

Grounded: The counselor trainee makes simple and tentative hunches which directly follow from and are closely tied to his direct experiencing of himself and the world. He focuses more on following the emerging data rather than on abstract theorizing. Theorizing is kept subordinate to experience.

Ungrounded: The counselor trainee engages primarily in abstract theoretical elaborations leaving the direct experiencing of himself and the world far behind. He spends most of his time categorizing and construct building, logical fitting games that are not closely tied to his experiencing. He structures his experiencing around his theorizing, confidently postulating complex theories on the basis of little or no data.

6. Process - Content

Process: The counselor trainee has a dynamic rather than a static approach to his experiencing. He is primarily concerned with understanding his experiencing within the context and sequence that it occurs rather than in the abstract. He is concerned with the transitional aspects of experience, with the "how" rather than the "what" aspects of his experiencing.

Content: The counselor trainee has a static rather than a dynamic approach to his experiencing. He is primarily concerned with analyzing his experiencing into fixed bits of information. In his approach, interpretations are abstracted out so that the sequential and immediate aspects of his experiencing are lost. The counselor trainee is primarily concerned with the "what" rather than the "how" aspects of his experiencing.

7. Depth - Surface

Depth: The counselor trainee moves deeply into unknown areas and explores the subtle, vague, implicit aspects of his experiencing in order to gain a clearer and more thorough understanding of his experiences.

Surface: The counselor trainee remains within the clear, distinct, factual, and explicit aspects of his experience. The vague and unknown are left out so that his experiences can be kept within the bounds of a pre-set system.

According to previous studies of the perceptual field of helpers, effective counselors, teachers, pastors, or resident assistants in housing (1) perceive from an internal rather than from an external frame of reference, (2) perceive others as able, rather than unable, (3) perceive themselves as identified with people, rather than apart from people, and (4) are concerned with holistic rather than detailed purposes or goals. Swanson hypothesizes that effective counselors will (5) be grounded rather than ungrounded, (6) have a process rather than a content-oriented approach to experiencing, and (7) deal with depth rather than surface dimensions of experience.

The major question addressed in this study was: Will the perceptual field of each counselor-in-training who experiences the introductory three months of training in the Gestalt approach change significantly on the seven target dimensions in the direction of the perceptual field organization designated as characteristic of effective counselors?

Two exploratory questions were also asked: (1) will the hypothesized change in students' perceptual field organization be perceived by fellow

students as evidence of personal congruence? and (2) will the hypothesized changes in students' perceptual field organization be reflected in changes in personal orientation on another instrument widely used to measure such change, the Personal Orientation Inventory (Shostrom, 1966)?

Chapter II

REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES

The review of the literature for this paper is divided into four sections: (1) that dealing with Rogerian theory and the research involving personal congruence from a Rogerian point of view; (2) that dealing with organismic theory (including Gestalt therapy) and its underlying theoretical formulations related to personal congruence; (3) literature and research focused on Combs' "self-as-instrument" theory and the perceptual characteristics methodology; and (4) results of training in these theoretical and experiential orientations.

Rogers' Theory and Approach

While much research has been carried out in Rogerian dimensions of empathic knowledge, unconditional regard, and congruence within the counseling relationship or in status studies using effectiveness as a criterion measure, little literature or research deals with personal congruence separately. In fact, Rogers initially hypothesized,

> With some 'fear and trembling' that . . . the essential conditions of psychotherapy exist is a single configuration, even though the client or patient may use them very differently. (Rogers, 1957, p. 101)

However, in a 1959 statement Rogers outlined an operationally defined theory of therapy, personality and interpersonal relationships in which he suggested that "congruence is the most basic of the three conditions" (Rogers, 1959, p. 184), and is the foundation underlying empathic knowledge and unconditional regard. In most research the three conditions are dealt with simultaneously

and the high interrelationship between them, as measured by the instruments used, indicates a single "good guy" factor accounting for most of the variation (Muehlberg, Pierce, and Drasgow, 1969). In any event, the impressive theory has stimulated an impressive body of supportive empirical research in psychotherapy.

The direction for the research to be done in this study is indicated by Rogers (1954):

> This [research being done at the time of his writing] is possibly the first major psychological research to build heavily on the objective analysis of phenomenological data . . . sampling the individual's awareness, his phenomenological field, as a basis for our study. (p. 429)

Rogers also notes the methodological processes, i.e., using phenomenological data to infer the subject's "internal frame of reference -- to infer his own picture of some aspect of his world." Rogers points to the similarity in intent of his research work to that of Piaget, rather than "to that of most American psychologists." The similarity to the research work of Combs, and the appropriateness of Combs' methodology is noted here and will be discussed in the later section in this chapter.

Phenomenological data are reported data from subjective experience, or from "experiencing," as Gendlin notes (1962). Gendlin has given the clearest description of the experience called personal congruence in this paper. Although in his own work and research he does not separate the content of the organismic awareness experience into the aspects noted in this paper, he does separate the organismic experiencing itself from the symbolization of it; the function of the organismic experience is to create the meaning (unique to each individual) from which the articulations and symbolizations proceed. "Symbol," for Gendlin, includes words, things, behaviors, responses, as it does in the present study.

Without differentiating the content of experiencing, then, Gendlin has focused on experiencing itself and has developed a philosophical and psychological approach to it (1962) and (with Tomlinson) an instrument for measuring levels of experiencing within the counseling relationship. The Experiencing Scale (Gendlin, 1961) is a rating scale to be used by trained judges working from tapes or typescripts of counseling interviews. Seven levels of experiencing are identified, ranging from the lowest where immediacy of experience is absent, through middle levels of intellectualizing experience (describing it in the past), to the highest level of living in terms of present experiencing.

Gendlin introduced the scale (1961); its validity was established by Tomlinson and Hart (1962). Many other studies have indicated that one can reliably recognize verbal behaviors that indicate levels of experiencing (see the literature review in Gendlin, 1967, p. 187). Experiencing has been studied in the context of supervision (Hansen and Barker, 1964), as well as in the context of outcomes of counseling (Tomlinson, 1967) with the hypothesis being that positive experience and outcomes in counseling are significantly related to depth of experiencing of both counselor and client. Such studies have been made with counseling center clients on college campuses and with hospital patients termed schizophrenic (Gendlin, undated). Recently, because of practical problems in using the Experiencing Scale, a rating service has been established at Wesleyan University, Middletown, Connecticut.

Gendlin's recent work has dealt with learning to focus on or attend to the inner experiencing process, and with differentiating the concretely felt meanings of that process (1967, 1968 and undated). According to Gendlin, a focusing rating scale is being developed based on phenomenological reports of the focusing experience.

Many studies have demonstrated that high levels of the therapeutic conditions of congruence, empathic knowledge, and unconditional regard are significantly correlated with constructive personality and behavioral changes measured by a wide variety of indices (for example, Halkides, 1958; Hart, 1960; Barrett-Lennard, 1962; Truax, 1963; Truax and Carkhuff, 1965; Gross and DeRidder, 1966; Rogers et al, 1967). In discussing research Rogers (1954) notes the use of objective and projective instruments developed by others or developed for the purpose, of the Q-technique (Stevenson, 1953), and of rating scales.

Truax (1963) converted the Rogerian dimensions into constructs of non-possessive warmth, accurate empathy, and genuineness and developed scales for measuring levels of functioning on each of the dimensions using data from taped interviews or written transcriptions of taped interviews. Using these scales Truax (1971) studied the process of group psychotherapy, reporting that incongruence on the part of either the therapist or the patient tends to inhibit the therapeutic process. Truax also (1963) reported that clients who had been counseled by counselors rated as functioning at high levels on the three dimensions demonstrated significantly greater improvement than clients in a control group; clients counseled by counselors who rated low on his scales deteriorated as compared to the control group. These results have been substantiated in a wide variety of studies using similar approaches (Carkhuff and Truax, 1966; Carkhuff, 1966; Truax and Carkhuff, 1967). Good, i.e., effective, counselors consistently function at a high level on all core conditions and poor, i.e., ineffective, counselors are consistently low across all conditions (Collingwood, Hefele, Muehlberg, and Drasgrow, 1970).

Carkhuff (in Berenson and Carkhuff, 1967) has reviewed the literature and cited additional substantive evidence that facilitating or retarding

effects of counseling on the client can be accounted for largely by the level of facilitative functioning of the counselor; that is, by assessing the degree to which the counselor provides the core conditions of non-possessive warmth, accurate empathy, and genuineness. In his later work (Carkhuff, 1969a, 1969b) Carkhuff added dimensions of concreteness, confrontation, and immediacy of response to the core conditions and developed scales for assessing functioning levels on these dimensions also. Carkhuff and Berenson (1969) clarify the change inherent in adding these dimensions. While in the earlier work the counselor is seen as "acted upon" by the counselee, in the later work the counselor is "action-oriented." A factor labeled as "initiatory behavior" is evidenced in Carkhuff's (1973a, 1973b) work published by the American Personnel and Guidance Association, while the earlier core conditions were based on a factor that might be labeled "responsive behavior."

In one study Carkhuff, Friel, and Kratochvil (1970) differentiated counselor-responsive and counselor-initiated conditions and addressed themselves to the differential effects of sequence in training. Two doctoral-level trainees with similar experience who demonstrated minimally facilitative levels of functioning conducted 30 hours of training for two groups of beginning clinicians (N = 6 in Group A, N = 5 in Group B). Group A was trained first in responsive dimensions, then in initiatory dimensions. For Group B the order was reversed. Carkhuff's (1969a) training model -- the integrated didactic and experiential model using modeling, role-playing, and trainee feedback -- was used. Pre-, mid-, and post-ratings were made using responses to client-stimulus expressions, ratings of alternative counselor responses, and ratings of level of functioning on segments of taped interviews. Two raters were used with rate-rerate reliabilities of .80 or above. Both groups demonstrated significant gains ($p < .025$) over the

course of training in communication and discrimination of both dimensions. There was no significant difference between the groups over the 30-hour period of training; however, at mid-point the counselor-responsive group demonstrated significantly ($p < .05$) greater gain in those dimensions than the counselor-initiated group in the dimensions they had focused on.

Rogers has also moved in his thinking and writing from the early emphasis on empathic understanding (a responsive stance) to an emphasis on the honest self-expression of the counselor (Rogers, 1967, 1969). To quote his latest published statement (Rogers, 1973):

> I trust I have made it clear that over the years I have moved a long way from some of the beliefs with which I started: that man is essentially evil; that professionally he is best treated as an object; that help is based on expertise; that the expert could advise, manipulate, and mold the individual to produce the desired result . . . . On the basis of my experience I have found that if I can help bring about a climate marked by genuineness, prizing, and understanding, then exciting things happen. (pp. 13-14)

A phenomenological study of client-centered therapy also elucidates the change in stance from reactive toward proactive (Barton, 1971).

In most research reports reviewed for this study personal congruence has been measured by using judges to rate the level of congruence (genuineness) of the subject or by having the subject rate himself. Judges have been experts (Halkides, Hart, and Truax) or students with no background of study in counseling (Rogers, et al, 1967). Rating scales have been developed by Halkides (1958), Kiesler (1967), Truax (1963), Lister (1970), among others. Each scale consists of a number of descriptive levels, each level precisely specified by the author. In the extensive research using rating scales, investigators have trained observers to apply such scales to observed behavior of individuals being rated; protocols have been actual counseling sessions either on audiotape or transcribed from tape. Truax and Carkhuff (1967)

present the scales initially developed by Truax (1963) along with a review of the evidence of their reliability and validity.

Two recent studies have attempted to isolate and examine the Rogerian construct of personal congruence. Morgenstern (1967) hypothesized that congruence is related to self- and other-perceptions, that there is a systematic relationship between congruence in one person and perceptions of him by another. He developed a Derived Congruence Index based on three constructs: belief transparency, actual transparency, and interpersonal sensitivity about self. Subjects for his study were 170 freshmen and sophomore students (84 males, 86 females) in roommate pairs who were given an instrument developed by Morgenstern to measure congruence in oneself, the Derived Congruence Index, and the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory (Barrett-Lennard, 1962), which purports to measure perceptions of unconditionally regard, empathic understanding, and congruence, to test for roommate perceptions of congruence. Morgenstern found that congruence as defined in his study and measured by his instrument was not significantly related to congruence as measured on the Barrett-Lennard instrument or to an "average" congruence (the average of scores for positive regard, empathic understanding, and congruence). Limitations of the sample, of the statistical methodology, and of the constructs themselves were cited as reasons for the non-significant results.

Hill and Hill (1970) focused on congruence for their study of interpersonal relations training. Two 9-member groups of facilitators-in-training or experienced facilitators (students at United States International University), San Diego, or associates of the Center for the Studies of the Person, La Jolla, California) participated in the study. Four sessions were held for each

group. Session I was group encounter for the purpose of gathering data on each participant's congruence and incongruence as perceived by the other participants. Session II was a replay of the audiotape of Session I to allow each participant to evaluate his own congruence and incongruence. Session III was group encounter with instant visible feedback for all participants simultaneously from a specially designed recorder (described later in this section). Session IV included a discussion of the total experience. The Hills used the Modified Adjective Check List, an eight-item semantic differential instrument, together with oral and written comments to generate data relating to change in participants associated with the experience. A three-factor analysis of variance statistical design was used for analyzing the data; the difference in mean scores for sessions was highly significant ($p < .01$) with the significance related to Session II in which participants viewed the taped replay of Session I. Most of the participants felt that the experience was positive.

Two instruments have been devised to measure congruence. Morgenstern (1967) developed a Q-sort using 37 adjectives from which he developed a Derived Congruence Index. For their study described above, Hill and Hill (1970) have developed and tested the Hill Instant Feedback System, an electronic device for use by individuals in training in congruence and awareness of incongruence. The HIFS consists of 10 individual transmitting units small enough to be held comfortably in the hand and a master control panel designed to report responses from each of the 10 transmitters simultaneously. In group training situations, the panel can be visible to group members or hidden from them. (See the unpublished dissertation for a complete description of the instrumentation.) The response choices for the group members (a series of colored lights triggered by the transmitters) can be designated

in any way desired. For the Hill study, the lights were labeled in this fashion: green -- I perceive the speaker to be congruent; yellow -- I am not sure if the speaker is being congruent or not; red -- I perceive the speaker to be incongruent; no light -- none of these choices fits what is being said. The designers of the instrument note that it can be used in numbers of other contexts. The instantaneity of response and the capability of being visible or invisible made it particularly apt for use in congruence training.

One further study is cited here; it is appropriate here and in the section on perceptual field characteristics. Dellow (1971) made an effort to correlate Rogerian dimensions as measured by the Truax and Carkhuff scales with perceptual field characteristics of his subjects. Subjects for the study were 34 female elementary teachers from several counties in Florida. Perceptual field data from Human Relations Incidents submitted by the teachers were correlated with ratings of classroom behavior for levels of empathy, congruence, and positive regard based on Truax and Carkhuff scales. A canonical correlation was made and the Cooley and Lohnes test for significance was applied. Dellow's prediction of a positive and significant relationship was not supported by the data: "Teachers' inferred perceptions had little to do with their rated classroom levels of empathy, congruence, and positive regard" (p. 83). Dellow concluded that the obtained results were due to inadequacy of measurement procedures. The perceptual organization is recognized as holistic in nature and it seems that "relating individual perceptions with specific behaviors, at least at this time, is an over-simplification of the true nature of the relationship between one's phenomenal experience and his behavior" (p. 84).

Organismic Theory and Approach

This section includes reports on the literature and research related to Gestalt therapy and theory and to intuition, the organismic component of personal congruence.

To date one report of research dealing with any aspect of Gestalt therapy has been found in the literature. Such a "scarcity of published material" is noted by Fagan and Shepherd (1970): "Most Gestalt therapists tend to be doers rather than sayers" (p. vii). Yontef (1969) states, "Few Gestalt therapists have done much to carry out the research possibilities of Gestalt therapy" (p. 40). In the past three or four years a spate of books that deal with aspects of therapy or theory have appeared; however, the scarcity of research is obvious.

Denner (1968) reports one study made in connection with Gestalt, a study of individual differences in willingness to report immediate experience, a construct related by Denner to individual differences in willingness to report a crime. He hypothesizes that reluctance to report a crime indicates a need for more stimulus input (information) before commitment to a perceptual judgment, and a concern with real-unreal distinctions. Within the Gestalt theory (Perls, Hefferline, and Goodman, 1951) such a "reluctant" witness can be seen as failing to respond adequately to what is happening in his environment, as possibly lost in abstractions, or as out of touch with the concrete objects and events of his world. Many of the Gestalt exercises or "experiments" used in therapy focus one's awareness on such phenomena. Denner hypothesizes that a group of individuals with a relatively high need for information (as demonstrated by an analysis of autokinetic or tachistoscopic tasks) and a high concern with the real-unreal distinction would reveal a pattern of longer reaction times to and higher rates of hesitation pauses in

the Gestalt exercises. They would also reveal their reluctance in the evasiveness and digressiveness of their responses, and in the content of their reports which would be relatively less immediate and concrete.

The subjects for the study were 20 undergraduates at Indiana University assigned to two groups of 10, one characterized as Unreluctant Witnesses, or as having low need for information (N = 10, 7 females and 3 males), and one as Reluctant Witnesses (N = 10, 6 females and 4 males). The groups were assigned on the basis of tachistoscopic trial scores and autokinetic time-response scores on reporting a string of nonsense words. Both groups were asked to participate in perceptual judgment criteria tasks and in Gestalt therapy exercises. Results of the study were based on analyses of tape recordings of both sessions. Analysis of variance indicated that the RW group differed significantly from the UW group in longer reaction time ($p < .05$), in more hesitation-pause time within responses ($p < .05$), in more evasiveness ($p < .01$), and in less concreteness of response ($p < .01$). Reluctant witnessing is characterized by: (a) relatively long reaction time, (b) relatively more frequent hesitation pauses, (c) evasiveness, and (d) lack of concreteness.

Denner notes that,

> The occurance of this phenomenon is undoubtedly dependent upon a number of cognitive operations [perception, judgment, speech] not usefully studied independently but rather to be seen as aspects of a decision-making process. From the viewpoint of Gestalt therapy the observer remains a reluctant witness because his verbalizing does not terminate in action toward the objects in his external environment . . . [he] hesitates to verbalize what he is immediately aware of. (p. 530)

Although the research was not carried out in a controlled fashion, Rosanes-Berrett (1970) reports on studies using Gestalt therapy as an adjunct treatment for some visual problems. In reporting on three actual

cases, diagnosed by an ophthalmologist or optometrist who also checked the visual performance of the subjects periodically throughout the Gestalt therapy, she indicates ways in which vision was changed through educating awareness.

For further evidence of or research related to the Gestalt theory and approach one must turn to the literature on perception and intuition, and the literature of phenomenology. In its a priori psychological and philosophical assumptions Gestalt therapy rests solidly on a base in Gestalt (perceptual) psychology and in existential phenomenology (Van de Riet, 1974a).

The major research support for the Gestalt description of organismic behavior rests on studies of persons who have experienced "psychic blindness" or who have suffered brain lesions through accident or war experiences (Goldstein, 1942; studies made by Gelb and Goldstein and reported by Merleau-Ponty, 1962): one perceives in wholes from which parts emerge as figure when meaning is attached. "Behavior is a Gestalt," as Merleau-Ponty puts it (in Spiegelberg, 1971). That a merely mechanistic physiology of the nervous system cannot account for the experience of one's own body is amply demonstrated by such phenomena as the phantom limb. An amputee continues to be aware of feeling in an arm or leg after that limb has been amputated. The experience of the body is a phenomenon not dependent upon the actual physicality of the body.

There is little disagreement among phenomenologists that the characteristic core of phenomenology is its method which has at its heart a protest against scientism and reductionism (Spiegelberg, 1971). Its chief meaning, however, is not revolt against the "scientific" method but a positive investigation of phenomena "which have been blocked from sight by the theoretical patterns in front of them." Three operations are involved in such phenomenological investigations: the intuitive grasp of the phenomena, their analytic

examination, and their description. Such a methodology does not issue in studies to be reported in the customary journalistic channels; the direct experience of the subject is the source of data and the usual research methodologies are inappropriate. In the words of phenomenologists:

> While the majority of American psychologists are still rooted in a natural science preconception of being human, there is increasing evidence of a concern with breaking the binds that have tid us exclusively to that conception, with opening psychology to the full richness and subtlety of human living. We feel that our approach provides a way of thinking and speaking that can both facilitate and implement this opening process. (Giorgi, Fischer, Von Eckartsberg, 1971, p. vi)

The essence of the method is to put aside pre-judgments about the subject of study, to analyze the subject in order to reduce the data to essentials, which then are described in as concrete and specific terms as possible, not as typifications of a theory. Most of the supportive material for the Gestalt approach, then, is philosophic and analytic in the phenomenological sense.

Dr. Laura Perls (in Pursglove, 1968) has presented two such analytic case studies. She discusses two cases in which the characterological features could be "diagnosed" as obsessional and more or less paranoid, going into an analysis of the distinctive aspects of the two subjects from the Gestalt point of view. She reduces the data from her observations of the two clients into a statement of the common ground, the lack of balance between the environmental contact and the self-support functions of each client, and then deals with the important differences in therapy necessitated by taking into account the uniqueness of the individual ways of handling these two functions. Although not so completely analyzed and described as in classic phenomenological studies, several other case studies of process in Gestalt therapy are available in the literature (Perls, Simkin, Fagan, Cohn, and Close in Fagan and Shepherd, 1970).

The basic phenomenological process, as noted, is intuition, as is the basic organismic process in personal congruence. Westcott (1968) has made a study of intuition, including "experimental and empirical analysis of the means whereby people do, in fact, get the point sooner than their hold on the facts would warrant," as Bruner noted in the Foreward to Westcott's book (p. v) or in the absence of specific information that might be necessary to get the point in a rational cognitive manner. Westcott organizes his study into chapters dealing with psychological studies of intuition, the psychological analysis of intuitive experience, the measurement of intuitive thinking, and studies of perceptual inference. Each chapter treats all available empirical data and research in a careful and thorough manner. The bibliography of more than 200 items is a particularly valuable reference source.

The results of the Denner study discussed earlier correlates with Westcott's own studies of intuitive thinking (Westcott, 1961, 1964, 1966; Westcott and Ranzoni, 1963). Westcott hypothesizes that intuitive thinking can be defined operationally in terms of Information Demand, Efficiency, and Success. The first two dimensions relate directly to those used by Denner. Westcott developed a problem-solving scale for analyzing intuitive thinking on these three dimensions.

The Westcott Problem Solving Scale has been administered to 11 samples of subjects since 1955, including undergraduate and graduate students at the University of Oxford, Vassar College, Bard College, and Pomona College; a total of 1097 subjects were employed in the studies. Both validity and reliability studies were undertaken over a three-year period, along with other internal consistency studies in order to validate the three major constructs of the hypothesis. Results in all of the validity studies were significant at least at the .05 level. Reliability studies were conducted

over a three-year period with correlations all significant beyond the .01 level. Westcott concludes:

> Thus, it does appear that the conceptualization of of intuition offered at the outset . . . does lend itself to operationalization and the phenomenon described conceptually can be studied by laboratory procedures. Individuals do vary in their tendencies to carry out intuitive thinking, and they are stable in these tendencies. (p. 110)

Westcott made further studies of groupings that emerged from his research, including intuitive thinkers (who require very little information and are successful), and careful, cautious failures (who require excessive information and are unsuccessful), and groups that fall between these extremes. From measurements of personality and attitude, based on the Vassar College Attitude Inventory, the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale, the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values, and the California Personality Inventory, he arrived at the following statement of characteristics that differentiate the accurate intuitive thinkers quite clearly from all other groups:

> They [the accurate intuitive thinkers] tend to be unconventional and comfortable in their unconventionality. They are confident and self-sufficient, and do not base their identities on membership in social groups. Their skills and investments in social interaction for its own sake are relatively low, and when they go along with a group it is not because of any particular value placed on social conformity. In social situations they appear to maintain considerable control of affect but in non-social pursuits they can become very affectively involved. Their investments appear to be primarily in abstract issues, either at the academic-intellectual level, or at the level of human values. In their pursuit of these concerns they explore uncertainties and entertain doubts far more than the other groups do, and they live with these doubts and uncertainties without fear. They enjoy taking risks, and are willing to expose themselves to criticism and challenge. They can accept or reject criticism as necessary, and they are willing to change in ways that they deem appropriate. There is resistance to control and order imposed from without, but in contrast, they maintain a high sense of morality which is generated from within. They describe themselves as independent, foresighted, confident, and spontaneous. (pp. 140-142)

Although not so carefully or definitively studied, Westcott also discusses research measuring what he calls perceptual inference, conceived to parallel the intuitive problem-solving task. He concludes that relationships are very complex and that many areas of research are open to investigation. He also details the many areas of research with long traditions in psychology that are clearly relevant to the study of intuition (social perception, interpersonal perception, subliminal stimulation, learning without awareness, non-cognitive elements in cognition, risk-taking, etc.) and notes important findings in each area.

The analysis of organismic factors and training methodology given in Chapter I is based on Westcott's substantial contribution to the subjective experiential components of personal congruence.

No research studies of change in intuitive process as the result of training were discovered in the literature. Cohn (1968) reports on five workshops she held in which the focus was on "training intuition." Such a focus grew out of the serendipitous finding that participation in training workshops for practicing psychotherapists in the New York City area had led to increased "emotional acuity and intuitive skills" in several participants. Cohn endeavored to isolate the elements that pertained to such processes and designed intuition training workshops in which group members were invited to respond to each other with intuitive observations and communications. Cohn reached several conclusions: (1) all persons have a certain intuitive ability; it cannot be suggested; it can only be freed from inhibitions and trained for use; (2) blocks to accurate intuitive perceptions are derived from the need to please or affront the leader, the wish to submit to or outdo another person, the assumption of certain standards (of right or wrong, pleasing or not pleasing), biases of any kind, apathy as

well as overinvolvement, anxiety, prejudice and social amenities; (3) freedom, playfulness, and love of surprises must be present; (4) empathy along with respect for personal integrity is required for accurate intuition.

Although Cohn did not research her findings in controlled experiments, her findings parallel those reported by Westcott: "Open experiences with people, empathy, and emotional freedom to let new insight surprise us are the basic elements of interpersonal intuition" (p. 176).

Perceptual Field Theory and Approach

The "self-as-instrument" concept was developed and applied in the helping professions by Combs and a group of colleagues in a seminar instituted in the College of Education at the University of Florida in 1959. Their conclusion was that "professional helpers must be thinking, problem-solving people; the primary tool with which they work is themselves" (Combs, 1969, p. 10). This being accepted, to focus on knowledge, methods, or common techniques is not particularly fruitful in isolating aspects of effectiveness in professionals. A more fruitful way was to apply principles of perceptual psychology to the exploration of the nature of effectiveness.

In terms of perceptual psychology, "the individual's behavior is a function of all those perceptions existing for him at a given moment" (Combs, Avila, and Purkey, 1971, p. 25). Thus, to study the perceptions of effective helpers was to explore the nature of effectiveness. The researcher must "get inside" of a subject of research; he must "reconstruct" the subject's perceptual field from an internal point of view in order to understand his behavior. As Combs and Snygg (1959) indicate,

> We need only to learn to read behavior backwards in order to understand the perceptions of another person. That is, we can infer from another's behavior the nature of the perceptions which probably produced it. (p. 35)

From the point of view of perceptual psychology, behavior is controlled not only by what one actually physically "sees." More importantly, behavior is controlled by the uniquely personal meanings attached to the perceptions. A person, thus, tends to behave in accordance with what things mean to him or what is believed to be true about himself, others, and the world. Not only is seeing believing, but believing is seeing from the perceptual point of view. A "fact" is not what is; a "fact" is what one believes in. The perceptual field is the sum total of what a person believes to be true about the world in which he lives and himself and others in the world, a compilation of his attitudes, beliefs, and values, as well as his physical perceptions. Landis (1970) diagrams the structure of the person is his psychological environment in such a way as to clarify these constructs. See Figure 2.

Combs and his colleagues hypothesized that there were attitudes, beliefs, and values, aspects of the perceptual field, characteristic of effectiveness:

> Persons who have learned to use themselves as effective instruments in the production of helping relationships can be distinguished from those who are ineffective on the basis of their characteristic perceptual organization. (Combs, 1969, p. 14)

Beginning with the 1959 seminar, then, a continuing series of studies have indicated reliably that there is a perceptual field organization characteristic of persons who use themselves effectively as instruments of positive and helpful change in others. Out of the original suggested list of more than 50 dichotomous dimensions, five categories came into focus: (1) the general frame of reference or point of view from which the helper approached the helping situation; (2) the ways in which the helper perceived other people; (3) the ways in which the helper perceived himself (his self-concept, or core constructs about himself); (4) the ways in which the helper perceived the task with which he was confronted; and (5) the

ways in which the helper perceived appropriate methods for carrying out his purposes.

Subsequent studies have supported these categories hypothesized by Combs and his colleagues. Studies of teachers (Gooding, 1964; Dellow, 1971; Vonk, 1970; Brown, 1970; Dedrick, 1972; Usher, 1966), counselors (Schoch, 1965; Combs and Soper, 1963; Rotter, 1971), priests (Benton, 1964), resident assistants (Jennings, 1973) have shown that they are indeed significant differences in the perceptual characteristics of effective helpers in hypothesized directions, which will now be indicated.

The Combs and Soper study (1963) was the first undertaken to test the hypothesized perceptual dimensions and may be cited as the prototype of all subsequent research. Subjects were 31 counselors-in-training in the 1961-1962 Guidance Institute at the University of Florida. Protocols from Human Relations Incidents (HRI) were elicited four times during the semester chosen for the study. These were rated by four graduate research assistants trained in making perceptual inferences. Evaluations of counselor effectiveness were made by the professors responsible for the Guidance Institute program, who rank-ordered the members of the Institute in order of perceived effectiveness. These evaluations were correlated with rank orders with respect to the inferred perceptual characteristics. All of the predictions as to perceptual organization of the counselors-in-training ranked as most effective were supported. All but two of the correlations were significant beyond the .01 level, the others at the .05 level.

In the Combs and Soper study the perceptual fields of effective counselors were described by the following dimensions:

General frame of reference:

*1. perceives from an internal order rather than external point of view.

2. perceives in terms of people rather than things.

Perceptions of other persons:

*3. perceives others as able rather than unable.

4. perceives others as dependable rather than undependable.

5. perceives others as friendly rather than unfriendly.

6. perceives others as worthy rather than unworthy.

Perceptions of self:

*7. perceives self as identified with people rather than apart from people.

8. perceives self as enough rather than wanting.

9. perceives self as self-revealing rather than self-concealing.

Perceptions of purposes in counseling:

10. perceives the purpose as freeing rather than controlling.

11. perceives the purpose as altruistic rather than narcissistic.

*12. perceives the purpose as concerned with larger rather than smaller meanings (holistic rather than detailed).

Wass and Combs (1973) used six dimensions which were abstracted from the original twelve: (1) internal-external frame of reference*, (2) perceptions of others as able-unable*, (3) perceptions of self as adequate-inadequate (enough-wanting, in the earlier study), (4) perception of self as revealing-concealing, (5) perception of purpose as freeing-controlling, and (6) perception of goal (purpose) as larger-smaller*. Again the perceptual field characteristics of effectiveness were those discovered in the 1963 study.

Data for the perceptual field research reviewed for this paper were accumulated from many sources: verbal protocols elicited in response to

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*The starred items were selected for research in this study.

various stimuli, and taped segments of counseling sessions used as projective devices from which inferences were made about the perceptual organization of each subject. Written protocols have included critical incidents in counseling or teaching, human relations incidents, stories written about selected Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) cards, questionnaires, interpersonal problem situations. Combs and Soper (1963) used the Human Relations Incident (HRI) as the data source for their original study of counselors-in-training. This device has been used as data source in 7 of the studies reviewed for this paper (Combs and Soper, 1963; Benton, 1964; Vonk, 1970; Dellow, 1971; Rotter, 1971; Dedrich, 1972; Jennings, 1973) with positive reactions to its use reported in each case.

For all the perceptual field research the Perceptual Dimension Scale (PDS) has been used: a 5- or 7-point continuum of one of the perceptual dimensions anchored at each extreme by one of the polarities used for the study.

Protocols were evaluated by raters trained to enter the perceptual world of the subject whose words they were reading or listening to and to infer from the verbalizations a rating on the scale being assessed at that time. Numbers of raters used in the reviewed studies have varied from 2 to 5 with most researchers using 3 raters. Raters have been graduate students in education or professionals in education or psychology who have undergone extensive training to enable them to perform adequately. Inter-rater reliabilities of at least .8 have been reported in all cases. Careful controls of order of ratings, number of ratings, and time spent in rating have been devised to insure against the "halo" effect and any other kind of bias that might contaminate the results.

The use of inference has been questioned as a research tool. Combs and Snygg (1959) recognize such questioning and make their response:

> Making inferences introduces a further variable to the process of observation it is true. However, the use of human creativity in science does not produce an invalidation; only a further variable to be recognized and controlled. Properly used with full realization of its assets and liabilities, the human instrument deserves to be treated like any other fine instrument, with care and respect. (p. 447)

Courson (1965) has made a further statement assessing the use of inference as both valid and reliable. Validity and reliability information on the PDS is available in numerous reports (i.e., Combs, 1964; Hanke, 1961; Wass and Combs, 1973).

Combs (1959) suggested that perceptual organization is probably holistic in nature. Vonk (1970) and Dellow (1971) have explored the relationships within the perceptual dimensions chosen for their studies. Both report that the application of factor analytic procedures or a canonical correlation suggests that, indeed, the factor structure of the perceptual dimensions and/or the inferences concerning them probably is holistic. The high degree of correlation ($p < .05$) does indicate that "there is a high degree of inter-relationship between the many perceptions one has about himself, others, and his purpose" (Dellow, p. x).

Results of Training

Research to determine the results of counselor training programs in terms of the growth, development, or change in counselors-in-training falls broadly into three categories: (1) that dealing with the effects of specific techniques being taught or teaching methods being used; (2) that dealing with changes in personality variables, including attitude; and (3) that dealing with broader or more generalized concepts or models used for structuring training, such as the didactic, the experiential, the systems, the communications models, or various combinations or orderings of

them. Cottingham (1974) points out that varied points of view regarding training programs themselves issue in various kinds of evaluative research relating to them.

Chenault (1962) reported that,

> While the profession is concerned about student growth in-process, little attention has been devoted to it in counselor education literature; and we often lose sight of it in our cross-sectional evaluations . . . . Since counselor educators use subjective bases of evaluation to varying degrees, the addition of the student's in-process perceptions should provide more meaningful bases for their subjectivity. (pp. 194-196)

She suggested the "diary-report" technique which would present a "quasi-longitudinal picture of growth." While that specific technique is only tangentially related to the current study, the basis for use of the technique (studying the in-process perceptions) clearly is. In the years since Chenault wrote much has been done to evaluate such personal growth.

Research dealing with the specifics of counselor training has focused on nearly every known technique, method, or training aid using a wide variety of criterion measures. The conclusion reached has been that training in specific techniques does, in fact, change the students' behaviors in that technique, usually in desired directions depending on a variety of factors in the training situation. However, other desired change of a more general nature, such as "personal growth," does not necessarily occur as a serendipitous result (i.e., Hurst and Jensen, 1968; Kratochvil, 1969; Payne, Winter and Bell, 1972). According to Kratochvil, "what is focused on in training is what changes or can change" (p. 107).

Hurst and Jensen (1968) note the importance of the counselor's attitudes and his ways of perceiving himself, his client, and his goals; they point out that traditional programs do little to develop the desired attitudes

and perceptions. Using 20 lay "house counselors" at North Carolina Advancement School, divided into 3 groups for 10 weeks of training, they studied the effect of a traditional didactic program (Group I), a Relationship Improvement Program plus weekly T-Group experience (Group II), and a control group who received no special training (Group III). Criterion measures were the Berger Scales of Expressed Acceptance of Self and of Others (Berger, 1952), two MMPI scales, the Attitude toward Self (As) and Attitude toward Others (Ao) scales, and the Butler-Haigh Q-Sort of attitudes toward self and others with a Likert-type scoring procedure. Data analyses of variance, co-variance, and t Tests showed no significant differences between groups for Groups I and III on any of the three instruments. Group II demonstrated significant changes (.001 and .005 levels) on all three instruments. Hurst and Jensen conclude that,

> Personal growth in counselor candidates cannot be expected to occur concomitantly as other traditional procedures are carried out . . . [and] a preparation procedure designed to bring about personal growth in defined directions can be successful. (p. 16)

Several reports of measured attitude change in NDEA Institutes or summer Guidance Institutes are available in the literature. Munger and Johnson (1960) made a study of 32 enrollees in a Guidance Institute at the University of North Dakota which included six weeks of course work and two weeks of counseling practicum. Porter's 10-question test of counselor attitudes was administered 3 times: before the Institute training began, after the 6 weeks of course work, and at the conclusion of training. The researchers found significant ($p < .05$) changes in attitudes with greater change occuring during the first phase of training than during the second. They suggest that "the change was so great in the first phase that there was

little room for further measured change." Porter's attitude test was also used by Demos and Zuwaylif (1962) in a study of change in enrollees in an intensive six-week counseling institute. Significant ($p < .05$) differences in pre- and post-training attitudes were noted in this study also.

Delaney, Long, Masucci, and Moses (1969) measured attitude change in 10 post-master's degree students at the University of Illinois (5 male, 5 female) enrolled in counseling practicum. Subjects were tested at the beginning, middle, and end of the practicum on a bi-polar semantic differential instrument using 10 sets of affective stimulus words related to counseling. One-tailed t tests for significance of difference between correlated means indicated significant difference ($p < .10$) on 8 of the 10 variables; however, the overall change was limited with the concept "professional" accounting for three-fifths of all significance.

Two examples of measured change in personality variables will be cited here as illustrative of that kind of research. Holt (1962) used Cattell's Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire and Edwards' Personal Preference Schedule to measure changes in personality variables in one semester's experience in the 1961-1962 NDEA Counseling and Guidance Institute at the University of Florida. A group of practicing counselors was compared to a group of graduate students in training in the College of Education using data from the two instruments administered before and after a regular semester's experience in the counselor education program. Holt concluded that significant changes do occur in personality variables of counselors-in-training as measured by these 2 instruments.

Mazer and Engle (1971) report the results of two evaluation studies of personal growth and attitude change in 22 students (14 men and 8 women)

in the 1968-1969 Guidance Institute at Western Michigan University. Pre- and post-measures of personality change over the 38-week Institute were made with the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) (Shostrom, 1966) and of attitude change using a semantic differential instrument with sets of bi-polar adjectives arranged into a 7-point Likert-type rating system. The statistical analysis (Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test and computed z scores) of the POI data indicated that pre-post differences exceeded the .05 level on 8 of the 14 scales, including the particularly significant ones of personal independence, flexibility, and sensitivity. The attitude change research indicated moderately (non-significant) attitude changes; the researchers note the questionable validity and reliability of the instrument used and the need for caution in interpreting these results. In addition, the personal critiques of students in the program identified their frequent and intensive interpersonal contacts throughout the Institute as having greatest salience for them.

Perceptual field characteristics are identified as relating to the value structures of the individual. One reported study (Kratochvil, 1969) has dealt with change in values of counselors-in-training. Subjects were 16 nurses and occupational therapists working in the psychiatric division of a large city hospital, randomly assigned (8 per group) to a non-treatment control group or to a training group which met for 18 hours of practice with volunteer clients in counseling about personal problems or experiences using an integrated didactic-experiential model. Tapes of counseling sessions were rated using the Traux and Carkhuff scales of empathy, respect, genuineness, concreteness, self-disclosure, and depth of self-exploration. The levels of functioning of the experimental group were significantly higher (.05 level)

than those of the control group. However, the hypothesized change in values, as measured by the Allport-Vernon-Lindsey Study of Values and a Moral Values Questionnaire, was not supported. The researcher concludes that values must be dealt with directly in order to effect change in that dimension.

Self-concept research also relates to the current study: incongruence between the experienced self and the self-concept is an aspect of inadequate functioning (Rogers, 1957; Combs and Snygg, 1959). Thus, one of the functions of a training program is to develop realistic self-concepts; that it, real self/ideal self congruence.

McClain (1969) reports the results of summer NDEA Institutes at the University of Tennessee. Subjects were 60 secondary school counselors, 30 in 1966 and 30 in 1967. Both programs were similar and were designed specifically to give feedback of personal data to the subjects through counseling practica, group process, and interpretation of personality test data by a counseling psychologist. Personal assessments were made with the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (Fitts, 1965) which yields measures of positiveness or negativeness of self-perception and ways of approaching the task of self-description. At the end of the Institute each of the 60 subjects was rated on overall personal adequacy by his practicum supervisor, his group leader, and the testing psychologist. Based on the average rating, each subject was placed in a "high," "middle," or "low" category of personal adequacy. McClain hypothesized that the pre-test scores of the three groups would show little difference and that significant differences would appear in the post-test scores. These hypotheses were supported ($p < .05$). The scores of the "high" subjects approximated those identified by Fitts as "exceptionally well-adjusted."

Combs (personal communication, 1974) has indicated that brief training programs tend to make little change in self-concept. Three studies can be cited in support of his statement. Wirt, Betz, and Engle (1969) used the Butler-Haigh Q-Sort to test change in the real-ideal dimension of self-concept of part-time graduate students enrolled in a beginning Counseling and Personnel Services practicum at Western Michigan University. Thirty-three subjects were randomly assigned to experimental (N = 17) and control (N = 16) groups. The experimental subjects were assigned to two small groups for 14 weekly one-hour group counseling sessions. T-tests were applied to test pre- and post-treatment data between and within groups at the .05 level of confidence. The analysis revealed that there were no significant differences between groups either prior to or following treatment and no significant differences within the control group. The real-ideal measures for the experimental group did differ significantly over time and treatment. The researchers focus on the group counseling situation in their discussion; however, for this current research the noted change in self-concept within the experimental group is of particular interest.

A study of the effect of group sensitivity training with student counselor-consultants (Myrick and Pare, 1971) indicated no significant change in self-concept as measured by two sub-scales of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. Comparisons within and between experimental and control groups produced no significant differences on the scales of Total Positive Self and Total Conflict.

Schoch (1965) adapted the Fiedler (1950) Q-sort for determining the effect of a counselor candidate preparation program on counselor-candidates. The instrument had not previously been used to study change in self-concept

over time spent in training. Specifically, Schoch tested the hypothesis that counselors' concepts of the ideal counselor-counselee relationship would be changed in the direction of the concepts of "experts" as reported by Fiedler. The 23 subjects in the study expressed high agreement with Fiedler's experts at the beginning of the study program and no significant change by the end. Individuals showed change; however, the amount of change as a group did not reach the desired level of significance ($p < .05$). Schoch attributes this result to the brief time of the study (11 weeks), to the high level of correlation at the beginning which may have been difficult to improve upon, and to the limitations of the Q-sort instrument itself.

There is extensive evidence that the core conditions for therapeutic change as formulated by Rogers and reformulated by Truax, Carkhuff, and others are teachable to both lay and professional counselors (Truax, Carkhuff, and Douds, 1964; Carkhuff and Truax, 1965; Carkhuff and Berenson, 1967; Carkhuff, 1969a, 1969b; Truax and Lister, 1971). These researchers and others (Reddy, 1969a, 1969b; Payne, Winter, and Bell, 1972; Delaney, Long, Masucci, and Moses, 1969) have explored the success of techniques of teaching these conditions and the method of teaching. Length of time in training has been dealt with; both 100-hour (Carkhuff and Truax, 1965) and 40-hour (Truax and Lister, 1971) training programs yielded significant and positive results.

As already indicated in this paper, the earlier counselor-responsive conditions have been enlarged upon to include counselor-initiated conditions. One study (Carkhuff, Friel, and Kratochvil, 1970), alluded to earlier, tested the differential effects of sequencing these two sets of dimensions in a 30-hour training program, discovering that, while both of the training

groups demonstrated significant gains ($p < .025$), there was no significant difference between groups as to sequence. The significant finding ($p < .05$) was that counselor-responsive conditions appear to be more easily learned than counselor-initiatory responses over a brief time period (15 hours of training).

The measurement of change related to training in terms of change in perceptual organization has been reported in several studies, three of which will be included in this review.

Schoch (1965), whose attempt to measure change in self-concept was reported earlier in this section, also tested the direction of change in perceptual organization of the 23 subjects in his study, reporting that the perceptual organization of each subject did change in the direction of that prescribed by the perceptual organization of "good" counselors as defined by Combs and Soper (1963).

Data from taped counseling sessions were rated on the 12 dimensions of the 4 categories of perceptual field organization by 3 trained scorers (inter-rater correlations of .80 or better), and then transformed for numerical comparisons by Guilford's (1950) formula. T ratios determined for each of the four general categories of perceptual characteristics indicated significant changes in the hypothesized directions ($p < .01$). Schoch also applied the Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test to the data and again significance beyond the .01 level was discovered.

McKinnon (1969) studied the relative effectiveness of counseling practicum and group counseling using four groups ($K = 7$) of student counselor volunteers at Oregon State University, two in practicum and two in group counseling. Pre- and post-treatment perceptual organization data were verbal behavior in 15-minute client interview segments and tape-recorded responses to selected Thematic Apperception Test cards rated independently by 3 trained judges on

a 5-point continuum of each dimension. Inter-rater correlations ranged between .65 and .99. The Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test was applied to the difference scores within groups. Between group differences were tested with the Kruskall-Wallis H-Test for 4 groups or the Mann-Whitney U-Test for 2 groups. Significance ($p < .05$) was reached within only one group on only the continuum Sees Self as Inadequate to Adequate. Between groups differences on this continuum were also significant ($p < .05$). McKinnon relates the dearth of significant results to: (1) the short training period (14 weeks) and the once-per-week schedule, (2) the small sample size, and (3) the global nature of the criterion instrument.

Wass and Combs (1973) report the results of a follow-up study of 35 graduates of an experimental training program in elementary education at the University of Florida based on the "self-as-instrument" concept. (See Wass, Blume, Combs, and Hedges, 1974, for a complete description of the program.) A control group of 30 teachers who had participated in a regular program was recruited for the study. One of the instruments used to assess the effectiveness of the experimental program was the Perceptual Dimensions Scale (PDS) using six dimensions: internal-external frame of reference; perceptions of others as able-unable; perception of self as adequate-inadequate; perception of self as revealing-concealing; perception of purpose as freeing-controlling; perception of goals as larger-smaller. PDS data were rated by trained raters with average interrater reliability coefficients of .93. F ratios were computed to indicate differences between the two groups. The hypothesis that the experimental group would score significantly higher than the comparison group on all six perceptual dimensions on the PDS was upheld by the data analysis. Combining the measures on the six dimensions

yielded significant results at the .01 level. The experimental group was higher than the control group on all six of the dimensions individually, and significantly higher (.01 level) on two: others as able and goals as larger.

Although this study did not test change in the pre- and post-treatment model, its testing of trainees following an innovative program designed to produce teachers who use themselves effectively through "providing maximum opportunities for self-direction and personal discovery of effective modes of teaching" gives it sufficient interest to be included here.

Summary

The foregoing review of the literature indicates that Rogers' hypothesized construct of personal congruence was first subsumed in research as "genuineness" shown to be one aspect of a "good guy" factor in studies of primarily reactive behaviors of counselors. In recent years proactive and confrontive behaviors have been added as target phenomena. This review appears to outline a general movement toward the study of the effective use of one's self as his therapeutic tool. While many stimulating theories and hypotheses have emerged from organismically-oriented work, the reports reviewed for this paper are primarily of introductory assessments, of phenomenologically-based or N = 1 studies. Little carefully controlled experimentation has been done thus far. Out of Combs' work on perceptual characteristics has emerged a reliable and valid inferential methodology that has stimulated much research into the perceptual characteristics of effective "helpers." While training programs have been assessed on many dimensions and using many instruments, none of the reviewed studies assessed a Gestalt-oriented training program. Thus, no research can be cited in direct support of this

study. It appears, however, that changes in perceptual dimensions over time spent in training or whatever kind are feasible targets for research.

Chapter III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Introduction

Training programs in counselor education are designed to effect desired changes in counselors-in-training. From the phenomenological point of view that I espouse in this paper, such desired changes are those related to one's perceptual field -- one's general frame of reference and one's ways of perceiving self, others, and purposes and goals. On the basis of extensive research, the perceptual field characteristics associated with effectiveness in several of the helping professions has been fairly well established. Two studies (Schoch, 1965; McKinnon, 1969) have indicated that observable and significant changes in perceptual field characteristics in the "effectiveness" direction do occur. The current study increases that small body of research.

This study was designed to test the perceptual changes in counselors-in-training in a one-quarter graduate-level course in Gestalt therapy theory and practice at the University of Florida. The course itself is a three-quarter (nine-month) program, the first quarter (three months) of which (Fall Quarter 1974) was the focus for this study.

The course of training in Gestalt therapy was introduced into the clinical psychology curriculum in 1970-1971 by Dr. Vernon Van de Riet, an associate professor of psychology and clinical psychology at the University of Florida, who at that time was in training for certification at the Gestalt Therapy Institute of Los Angeles. Although the course was designated for students in clinical psychology, counselor education students with at

least two quarters of practicum in counseling were allowed to register for vacancies in the class. Each succeeding year the class has included students from both programs plus other interested professionals, when space permitted. In 1973-1974 two sections of the class were opened to allow for all of the students who desired this kind of training and for five interns and post-doctoral students in clinical psychology at the J. Hillis Miller Health Center, University of Florida, who desired to join. The 1974-1975 class was composed of three sections, a total of 35 students. All sections were included in the present study. Three students were eliminated from the study because of their absence at the times when data were collected. The number of subjects for this study was 32.

Each section of the Gestalt class included students in counselor education and clinical psychology, and each included as near an equal number of males and females as was possible, given that the population was composed of volunteers. Each section met twice weekly for a two- to three-hour session, 18 total sessions each. The content and format for all sections was similar, although the existential base (see the description starting on page 65) meant that the order of events was not identical and could not be prescribed or planned ahead. While Gestalt theory was stressed in required readings, the conduct of the course was experiential. The students formed a Gestalt-oriented workshop for training in which the learning model was first to experience and then to reflect on that experience. Both Dr. Van de Riet and I were active participants, as well as leaders in two sections of the training program; the third section was co-led by Carl Nickeson, a graduate student in the third year of Gestalt training, and me. All three of us role-modeled in the experiences and techniques that were the focus at any time.

I was a student in the initial nine-month training course and was subsequently invited to continue for one year as assistant leader and then as co-leader for the past two years. Mr. Nickeson was a student and assistant leader for the two years prior to co-leading one of the groups for this study. Additional study and training experiences for all leaders have enabled us to continue the development of the course both in conceptualization, training experiences in awareness, and personal experience as counselors. Dr. Van de Riet was certified as a Gestalt therapist in 1973. I have trained with Ms. Gertrude Krause, director of the Gestalt Institute of Florida, and have worked with Dr. Irma Lee Shepherd, director of the Pine River Center, Atlanta, Georgia. For the past two years Dr. Van de Riet and I have been collaborating in the writing of a textbook in Gestalt therapy for graduate students and other professionals (Van de Riet, 1974a). As the class program has evolved and been refined and as the textbook has developed, the relationships among Combs, Rogers, and Perls that are the basis for this study emerged into my awareness along with a desire to explicate the common phenomenological and conceptual bases and to study the training of personal congruence.

Statement of Hypotheses

Seven perceptual dimensions were tested in the major component of the current research, with the null hypotheses stated as follows:

(1) After the introductory three months of training in the Gestalt approach to counseling there will be no significant difference in the perceptual field organization of each student as inferred from written protocols rated on a 7-point Perceptual Dimensions Scale on each of seven dimensions:

(1A) internal-external frame of reference

(1B) perceiving others as able-unable

(1C) self as identified with people-apart from people

(1D) process-content approach to counseling

(1E) purposes in counseling as holistic-detailed

(1F) self as grounded-ungrounded

(1G) depth-surface dimension of experiencing

Two exploratory questions were tested as follows:

(1) No significant difference in self-actualizing tendency as measured on the POI will be detected between scores at the beginning and at the end of the training period on any of the 7 orientations measured by the instrument.

(2) There will be no significant correlation between rankings of perceived personal congruence based on RI data taken at the end of the training period and rank orderings of perceptual dimensions scores and POI data taken from data at the end of the training period.

Subject Information

Subjects for the study were the 32 graduate students in counselor education and clinical psychology training programs at the University of Florida who enrolled voluntarily in the course in Gestalt-oriented theory and practice during Fall Quarter, 1974. Subjects were second- or third-year graduate students who were self-selected into the training and assigned to three groups on the basis of (1) students' class schedules, (2) the desired balance of counselor education and clinical psychology students, and (3) equal numbers of males and females, if possible. Age differences were duplicated in the groups as much as could be arranged. Demographic and biographic data on the subjects were taken during the first week of the

training program in order to describe the subjects in terms of age, sex, background study, and prior training or experience in counseling. Table 1 gives relevant data on the subjects by training group.

The experience of the previous four years in the training program indicated that subjects would be well above average in intelligence, articulate, experienced in counseling, and committed to their own growth and development. Some degree of sophistication in and exposure to phenomenological processes was assumed. These assumptions were borne out by the experience with the student subjects in training. The self-selection process was expected to and did insure a basic interest in the training and thus a personal motivation toward involvement and learning. Given these indicators, an assumption of normal distribution of scores on any criterion instruments within the group of subjects was unwarranted. Thus, non-parametric statistics were appropriate for data treatment.

Training Procedures

As I indicated earlier, the class involves three quarters (nine months) of training, of which I used the first three months' experience for this study. In this first period, Dr. Van de Riet and I focused upon educating the students in awareness of organismic processes, projections, and other aspects of personal congruence. During the second and third quarters, the intended content includes Gestalt therapy rules and games and therapy itself, in which the awarenesses of the first quarter are put into practice in dyads, small groups, and in the total group of each class section. It was appropriate then, that the first three months of training be used for this study.

Specifically, each class group met twice weekly for a two-to-three hour session. A detailed week-by-week training program cannot be described since

TABLE 1

Subject Data by Training Group

Group 1: Total 12		Group 2: Total 10	
Psychology Students	7	Psychology Students	7
Counselor Education Students	5	Counselor Education Students	3
Females	7	Females	4
Males	5	Males	6
Mean Age	25.0	Mean Age	28.9
Mean number of prior graduate quarters completed	6.5	Mean number of prior graduate quarters completed	8.7
Mean number of practicums prior to group experience	2.0	Mean number of practicums prior to group experience	2.4
Group 3: Total 10		**Totals**	
Psychology Students	6	Psychology Students	20
Counselor Education Students	4	Counselor Education Students	12
Females	7	Females	18
Males	3	Males	14
Mean Age	28.4	Mean Age	28.2
Mean number of prior graduate quarters completed	13.0	Mean number of prior graduate quarters completed	9.6
Mean number of practicums prior to group experience	2.9	Mean number of practicums prior to group experience	2.5

each session was organized out of expressed or perceived needs or desires at that session. However, a general format was used each time and the training experiences can be listed, albeit not necessarily in the order that was used in the course. Each class session followed this general format:

> First, an exercise to enable class members to bring their awarenesses into the present. Such an exercise might be an environmental contact followed by a withdrawal; it might be a focused and centered breathing exercise, it might be a fantasy experience into the content of the unfinished Gestalts that prevent the experience of being present.
>
> Second, "Rounds" in which each class member states his present experience, his here-and-now awarenesses, his needs or wishes for that session. The co-leaders participate as class members and usually model for the experience. Initially in the first quarter of training, students were encouraged to start reporting the past and then bring the reporting to the present, thus educating awareness of differentiating past and present experience. Accuracy of statement of present experience was stressed; the central learnings of personal congruence were focused into this part of the class session.
>
> Third, the experiential content for the session, developed out of expressed needs or wishes. Content may be exercises in awareness of organismic processes of figure/ground shift or of contact with the environment and withdrawal into the inner experience; projection experiences in which students learn to differentiate their perceptions from the thoughts or beliefs related to the perceptions; fantasy experiences either guided or free; breathing and relaxation exercises.
>
> Fourth, class members may "work;" that is, a class member may announce some problem or question or perception that he wished to clarify or effect closure on in some way with one of the class leaders. A dyad was then formed within the group in the traditional Gestalt way while the "work" was being done. Other members of the group may be involved as the therapist suggests when "trying out" behaviors, clarifying relationships, checking projections or perceptions are appropriate. Feedback was given in which projections were sorted from perceptions of the work itself.

During the initial class sessions in Fall Quarter, the content also included exercises that focused on perceptions of and contacts with other class members in order to develop trust and confidentiality within the group.

Three ground rules were immediately established for the class in order to facilitate verbalizations that grow from persent centeredness, from self perceptions, and to aid in honest and direct confrontation. These were adapted from Kepler (1968):

1. Start sentences with "I"; speak in the first person.

2. Speak directly to other persons in the group; no "gossiping" or talking about someone who is actually present at the time.

3. No questions. Questions are seldom asked for information alone; they represent the speaker's own point of view, which can best be stated directly in a declarative sentence.

Exercises used in class sessions were chosen because each focused on training awareness of some process or of blocks to some process important in the intuitive domain or in the accurate symbolization of the intuitive awarenesses. Dr. Van de Riet formulated a list of exercises that were used in each group at some time (see Appendix A), and Stevens' handbook Awareness (1971) was used for suggestions if some particular need arose.

Self-experiences included: (1) breathing patterns and eliminating blocks to deep and free breathing; (2) relaxation procedures and meditation; (3) guided awareness of seeing, hearing, touching, feeling, and thinking; (4) experiences in awareness of contacting the environment outside the body sensorily, contacting feelings within the body, and awareness of thinking or fantasizing; (5) guided "body trips" or guided awarenesses of body states, tension areas, tightness or pain in the body; (6) fantasy experiences, guided or unguided; (7) projective devices and games in which each student "became" an object, projected himself into that object, and reported the experience of being that object. In general, experiences were guided or directed first and then were "free," with the students simply monitoring

their own organismic processes with very little intervention from the leaders.

Experiences of others included: (1) body awareness, that is, non-verbal exercises of dialogue with hands, faces; (2) "I see--I imagine," a dyadic experience in which students reported perceptions of body language and voice qualities followed by their hunches or intuitions as to what the partner was experiencing; feedback enabled each student to make the appropriate reality check (projective mechanisms were focused upon in this exercise); (3) verbal self-disclosure exercises with feedback; (4) group dynamics exercises that allowed students to differentiate underlying processes in the group, such as Schutz (1966) designates as I (inclusion), C (control), and A (affection).

Accuracy of perception and verbalization were encouraged and demanded in all of the structured experiences and in the working sessions. Direct and honest statements, direct and honest feedback were modeled by the leaders and stressed in all aspects of the training. The organismic response noted by Gendlin as the "Yes, that's it!" experience was the goal of the learning.

Clarification of Design Components

This training program is unique in my experience; an extensive literature search has not uncovered any similar curriculum offering. T-groups, sensitivity groups, or therapy groups have been the subjects of research; however, the organismic learnings included in the Gestalt class were not included in such group experiences. This fact precluded the adoption of any kind of experimental design using a control group in this research and led to the projected study of change in individual perceptual characteristics.

Several aspects of the training have been mentioned and must be pointed out again at this time. First, I was one of the co-leaders of the training

program. Research on experimenter bias indicates reliably that results are contaminated if the experimenter is involved in any aspect of the research process. However, the focus for this study was upon changes in the perceptual fields of students, not upon methods of training. For this kind of study, my presence as co-leader was irrelevant as long as it was constant. My role was constant in all aspects of the training program, and that role was shared equally with Dr. Van de Riet and Mr. Nickeson. Other variables in the research situation were also controlled: time spent in training was constant with minor variations per session; program input was constant; the place of meeting was constant. The focus thus became the changes in the subjects' perceptual fields over time spent in training, a research design in which each subject served as his own control (Johnson and Jackson, 1959; Campbell and Stanley, 1963; Games and Klare, 1967; McGrath and Watson, 1970).

Campbell and Stanley (1963) have designated this research model as "quasi-experimental" (p. 7). McGrath and Watson (1970) have noted this design as the "two-cell study," diagrammed in Figure 4.

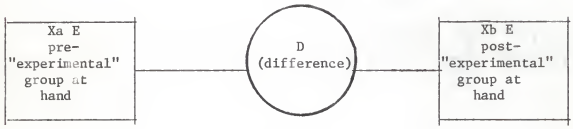

Figure 4

Model of Two-Cell Study

(McGrath and Watson, 1970, p. 85)

In this design there is no concern about population parameters; the subject group is specified. Threats to external validity are of no concern because there has been no sampling procedure. Generalization is limited to subsequent groups of the same nature and constitution. There is little control for threats to internal validity; possible effects of history or maturation of subjects are limitations of the study. Stanley (1967), however, has made a plea for more of this type of inquiry, particularly in introductory studies of educational or training models. Observed changes may be useful for hypothesizing or for later testing under more stringent controls. Ostle (1963) also supports such research:

> Designing an experiment simply means planning an experiment so that information will be collected which is relevant to the problem under investigation . . . so that the design, or plan, or test program be kept as simple as possible . . . and that the investigation be conducted as efficiently as possible. (pp. 244-245)

Instrumentation

The major target phenomenon for the research in the current study was the inferred perceptual characteristics of the subjects. The data source was the Human Relations Incident (HRI) used as a projective device; from responses to the HRI inferences were made about the perceptual dimensions of the subject-writer. Projective devices give the subject stimulus material with which he is asked to work creatively in reporting personal responses which are assumed to be projections of the subjects' attitudes and conceptions of the world (Cronbach, 1960). Such devices are particularly appropriate as sources of clues from which to infer the nature of the perceptions making up the unique perceptual field of the subject (Combs and Snygg, 1959).

The HRI has been utilized frequently in perceptual research (Combs and Soper, 1963; Dedrich, 1972; Jennings, 1973) and found to be an effective data-producing device. It consists of a prescribed number of essays written by each subject describing a significant past event involving himself and at least one other person. The event can be related to or a part of, but is not limited to, a counseling experience. For the current research, I asked each subject to follow this format in writing about each event (adapted from Jennings, 1973):

First: Describe the situation as it occurred at that time.

Second: What did you do in that particular situation?

Third: How do you feel about that particular situation now?

Combs and Soper (1963) elicited four such written protocols from each subject, while other researchers have elicited either two or three. Two was the number chosen for this study. A copy of the HRI form presented to subjects for this study is included in Appendix B, together with two examples of the protocols which were elicited.

Four of the previously researched perceptual dimensions were selected for research in this study. Item #1, internal-external frame of reference, was included in seven of the 14 studies reviewed for this paper. In each of the studies the item discriminated significantly, in most cases at the .01 level. Item #2, others as able-unable, was included in nine of the 14 studies with significance reported in all cases. Item #3, self as with people-apart from people, was included in 11 of the 14 studies with significance reported in all but one study. Item #4, purpose as concerned with larger meanings-smaller meanings, was included in eight studies with significance reported in seven of the eight. One study (Usher, 1966) reported non-

significant results in both item #3 and item #4. Subjects for the study were university professors; the author concluded that effectiveness as a university professor as measured in the study tapped variables other than those considered to be characteristic of effectiveness in other helping professions. The other three target dimensions had been developed recently (Swanson, 1975) and had not been studied previously.

The HRI data, two sets from each subject, were rated for the seven target perceptual characteristics by three judges trained to make these kinds of inferences from written protocols. Inferences were recorded on the Perceptual Dimensions Scale (PDS), a seven-point scale anchored in the bi-polar constructs for each dimension. The PDS was developed by Combs and some of his colleagues in 1963 and adapted for use in several studies since that time. The form used in this study was developed by Swanson (1975). The validity and reliability of these inferential processes and instruments have been established in several studies (cf Courson, 1965; Wass and Combs, 1973). A copy of the PDS used in this study may be found in Appendix C.

For information relevant to the exploratory questions I utilized: (1) the the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory (RI) (Barrett-Lennard, 1959, 1962), and (2) the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) (Shostrom, 1966). Each will be described in order.

The RI, Form OS-M-64, is a 64-item questionnaire with each item responded to on a six-point scale ranging from +3, "Yes, I strongly feel that it is true," to -3, "No, I strongly feel that it is not true"; there is no 0 response. Each item in the instrument is a statement that described a behavior categorized as characteristic of one of the four therapeutic conditions (Rogers, 1957): empathic understanding, level of regard, unconditionality of regard,

and congruence. Barrett-Lennard developed it for use by the client or counselor in a counseling situation; however, it has been adapted for use in many other contexts. Statements are both positive and negative; statements that indicate high levels of perceived congruence, for example, may be scored either +3 or -3.

Mills and Zytowski (1967) report the use of the RI in studies of parent-child relationships, mother-daughter relationships, teacher-pupil relationships. Morgenstern (1967) used it to study roommates' perceptions of each other. Reddy (1970) used it to test perceptions of individual T-group members by other members of the group. Zytowski (1974) reports that the RI bibliography contains more than 100 items (cf, Bergson and Solomon, 1966; Payne and Gralinski, 1968; Shapiro, Kraus, and Truax, 1969).

Barrett-Lennard (1962) reports split half reliability of the four sub-tests as ranging from .75 to .94. The stability of the test over a four-week period was reported as .84 to .90. Mills and Zytowski (1967) report test-retest reliability of .74 to .90 over a three-week period. Component analyses of the Mills-Zytowski and Barrett-Lennard data yielded up three components accounting for 93-96% of the variance. Approximately 75% of that variance was attributable to the first component, to which the sub-test of congruence contributed most (loadings of .87 to .94).

For the current study I used only the items included in the congruence scale. This decision was made on philosophical and scientific grounds, as well as for efficiency in data handling. My target construct was congruence. When the Mills and Zytowski (1967) data pointed to the centrality of that scale in their component analysis, it was both reasonable and appropriate to limit the Inventory to those items dealing with that construct. A copy of the RI used for this study may be found in Appendix D.

The POI (Shostrom, 1966) seemed particularly suitable for the current study. Shostrom describes it as a "comprehensive measure of values and behavior seen to be of importance . . . in self-actualization." The test, based on theoretical statements of Maslow, Rogers, and Perls, consists of 150 two-choice comparative value and behavior judgments. This force-choice inventory yields scores on two basic scales (inner-directed support and time competence) and on five dimensions of self-actualizing personal orientation, made up of 10 scales. Validity and reliability studies are reported by Shostrom (1966), as well as correlations with other scales. Several validity studies were based on nominations of practicing certified clinical psychologists and on therapy outpatient groups. In one study (N = 48) test-retest reliability coefficients ranged from .55 to .85 for the various scales.

The dimensions used for this study and the scales used for them are as follows:

1. Time-Competence: oriented to the present.

2. Inner support: tendency to be independent, autonomous.

3. Valuing: includes existentiality -- tendency to be flexible in application of values.

4. Feeling: includes (1) feeling reactivity -- sensitivity to one's own needs and feelings, and (2) spontaneity -- ability to freely express feelings at a behavioral level.

5. Self-perception: includes (1) self-regard -- sense of self-worth, and (2) self-acceptance -- acceptance of oneself despite shortcomings.

6. Synergistic awareness: includes synergy -- ability to reconcile the opposites in life.

7. Interpersonal sensitivity: includes (1) acceptance of aggression -- ability to accept one's own anger as natural, and (2) capacity for intimate

contact -- ability to establish close interpersonal relationships.

Collection and Reducation of Data

The HRI data were elicited from the subjects during the first and the tenth weeks of the training program. Forms were distributed at one class session and written responses collected in a blank folder at the following session. To insure objectivity each subject was assigned a random number which was affixed to each set of data before it was scored or rated.

The written protocols were evaluated by three trained raters on the seven perceptual dimensions chosen for the study. Raters were specialist or doctoral level students in the College of Education or Health-Related Professions at the University of Florida. Training generally followed the procedures outlined by Dedrich (1972). The first steps consisted of becoming familiar with the viewpoint of perceptual psychology and the inferential methodology, arriving at a common frame of reference through discussion and reading. The raters then familiarized themselves with the definitions of the perceptual dimensions to be used in this study and the rating sheets for reporting. The training process was shortened because all three raters had worked together on a previous project (Swanson, 1975). Next, sample protocols were used for discussion and practice in rating with written definitions available. Continuous comparisons of inferences and discussion about reasons for making particular judgments clarified constructs and inferential methodology.

When the raters agreed that they were sufficiently clear, independent ratings of 10 sets of sample data were elicited and compared. Reliability of inferred ratings was computed using Guilford's (1950) two-way analysis of variance technique. The formula is:

$$r_{kk} = \frac{V_r - V_e}{V_r}$$ (Formula 13.27, p. 300)

where V_r is the variance of the ratings, V_e is the error variance. When an interrater reliability coefficient of .75 or higher was reached in independent ratings on each of the seven target dimensions, training was discontinued. Interrater reliability computations on the practice data yielded the following coefficients: (1) internal-external frame of reference, .813; (2) perceiving others as able-unable, .80; (3) self as identified with people-apart from people, .745; (4) process-content approach to counseling, .833; (5) purposes in counseling as holistic-detailed, .93; (6) self as grounded-ungrounded, .75; (7) depth-surface dimension of experiencing, .78. Total interrater reliability data are shown in Table 2. The training period covered approximately four weeks.

To counteract the influence of possible "halo" effects in rating the study protocols, the order in which dimensions were rated was randomized. No more than three dimensions were dealt with on any one protocol at a time; the protocol was re-read when additional dimensions were to be rated. Reading and scoring of protocols was done independently by each rater who was instructed to avoid discussing his ratings with the other raters. These precautions were taken to increase the temporal, physical, and contextual separation of the perceptual inferences and minimized the halo effects or development of any pattern of rating within the total process. Raters reported that the structure did indeed accomplish these objectives.

Completed PDS's were returned to me for the further compilation of results and statistical analyses of the data. Raw data consisted of the sum of the three ratings for each of the 32 subjects for each of the two conditions, pre- and post-training.

The POI was administered to subjects during the second and tenth weeks of the training period. Raw data were the scores on the 12 scales summed to fit the seven dimensions used in this study, for both the pre- and post-training condition. The RI was administered to all subjects during the tenth week, each of whom rated all of the other members of his group. Raw data from the RI was one number per subject representing the difference between the total of the + answers and the total of the - answers from the data sheets.

Statistical Analyses

The 32 subjects were considered individually for the perceptual field research with each subject being his own control. The nature of the study and the nature of the training necessitated this kind of treatment; the lack of similarity to any other training being used and the constancy of important variables in the training situation itself assured the appropriateness and practicality of this design. Given these situational parameters, the inferential nature of the data, and the non-normality of the distribution, the statistic of choice for the study was the Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test (Siegel, 1956; Downie and Heath, 1959, 1965) with the pairs consisting of the pre- and post-training scores of each subject for each of the seven perceptual dimensions. Siegel has noted that the Wilcoxon Test utilizes both direction and magnitude of differences to be treated. Blalock (1960, 1972) has compared the Wilcoxon Test to the most powerful test, the t test: when the assumptions of the t test (interval scale and normal population of difference scores) are actually true, the power efficiency of the Wilcoxon Test is approximately 95% for both small and large samples.

For the Wilcoxon Test small samples are considered to be N = 6 to 25. For cases of N = 25, the Wilcoxon statistic T (the smaller of the summed

rank orderings of the + and - values) is converted to a standard z score (see description of procedures in Downie and Heath, 1959, 1965, pp. 238-239), indicating standard deviation units from the mean sum of the ranks, and significance (p) is read from a z table (Siegel, Table A, p. 247). In the current research with N = 32, the latter process was followed with results reported in Chapter IV. The level of significance chosen for this statistic was .025, direction predicted.

The pre- and post-training data from the POI were treated with similar statistical analyses. The Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test was applied to the raw data for each of the seven dimensions, as well as the summed data for each subject. These procedures were used with positive results on POI data related to effects of training by Mazer (1969) and Mazer and Engle (1971). The chosen significance level was .025, direction predicted.

The amount of correlation between the summed data from the POI and the summed data from the seven perceptual dimensions was calculated using Spearman's rank-order correlation coefficient, Rho, the most widely used of the rank correlational methods (Siegel, 1956; Downie and Heath, 1959, 1965). The Spearman Rho is appropriate when the assumptions for parametric statistics cannot be met, as in the present case. A significance level of .05 was chosen.

The raw data from the RI were correlated with the post-training data from both the PDS's and the POI also using the Spearman Rho statistic. The level of significance chosen for this statistic was .01, direction predicted.

The more stringent level of significance was chosen because of the nature of the data and the type of data treatment in which much of the subtlety of the data was lost.

Chapter IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

During the data collection phase of my study three students out of the 35 registered for the Gestalt training course were eliminated because of failure to produce data at the scheduled times, reducing the number of subjects to 32. Raw data from these 32 subjects were collected following the procedures described in Chapter III. Each subject wrote two Human Relations Incidents (HRI) during the first week of the quarter and two other incidents during the tenth week of the quarter. Each subject took the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) Shostrom, 1966) during the second week and again during the tenth week. Each subject completed the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory (RI) (Barrett-Lennard, 1962) on each of his classmates during the last class session in the tenth week.

The purpose of the major component of the research was to explore change in the seven target perceptual field characteristics that might be inferred from the HRI data. Although perceptual field characteristics, particularly central constructs, change very slowly (Combs, 1974), the nature of the Gestalt training program at the University of Florida indicated that change in the direction of that shown to be characteristic of effective counselors might be shown by an in-depth analysis of the changes that occur. Causality and generalizability are limited, of course, but the relationship between Gestalt training and changes in perceptual field would be of interest to counselor educators.

In the exploratory research the pre- and post-training differences as

measured by the POI were to be noted and analyzed for significance. In addition, such changes were to be looked at for possible correlations with the Perceptual Dimensions Scale (PDS) data inferred from the HRI's. The post-training data from the PDS and the POI were to be correlated with peer perceptions as shown in the RI data.

Reliability for PDS Ratings

The raters for the perceptual dimensions hypothesis were three graduate students at the University of Florida. Two were advanced doctoral students in counselor education, both conducting research in perceptual field organization at the time. One was a graduate student in rehabilitation counseling. All three had been involved in rating perceptual dimensions for two other research projects, one of which used the same dimensions as in this study. The training period, therefore, was considerably shortened and consisted of three practice sessions using practice protocols to become familiar with the form in which the raw data appeared and to check inferential processes.

The reliability study was conducted as planned, using 10 sets of protocols written by graduate students whose educational goals and training were similar to those of the subjects. The reliability of the ratings of the PDS's was computed using Guilford's (1950) two-way analysis of variance technique described in Chapter III. Reliability was .75 or above for all dimensions except With People-Apart from People, which was .70. The raters agreed that further training would not significantly improve that dimension, which had been difficult to rate reliably in both of the other studies. Reliability data appear in Table 2.

TABLE 2

Interrater Reliability Data on Perceptual Dimensions

Perceptual Dimension	Practice Data	Reliability Study	Research Study
Others as able/unable	.80	.80	.63
Self as with people/apart from people	.745	.70	.71
Process/content orientation in counseling	.83	.83	.52
Internal/external fram of reference	.81	.81	.74
Grounded/ungrounded orientation	.75	.75	.53
Holistic/detailed approach	.93	.93	.65
Depth/surface dimension of experience	.78	.78	.72

Interrater reliability calculated using Guilford's (1950) two-way analysis of variance technique.

The interrater reliability for the research study data was also calculated using Guilford's (1950) technique. The total data of each rater were used, considering the pre- and post-training ratings as if they were data from different people. Reliabilities were .52 to .74 for the seven dimensions (see Table 2). Although these figures were lower than those based on the 10 sample protocols and well below the lower limit established in the design methodology, a look at the sets of scores revealed that ratings on all of the dimensions were within two-point intervals of each other 77% of the time. This was within the reliability criterion used in previous research which called for ratings within a two-point spread 75% of the time. Furthermore, in the rank-order statistic to be used in the major research, the summed data from the three judges were to be used. Any transformation of scores of one of the raters would change the scores but not the rank ordering. Therefore, the rating data were considered appropriate for use in the research study.

An intra-rater Pearson product-moment correlation of the raters' data was made using the BMD 02D computer program (Dixon, 1973) to assess relationships among the three raters in order to understand further the sources of the discrepancy in the ratings. The correlation matrix revealed that one of the raters differed appreciably from the other two on the two dimensions for which reliability was lowest. This rater reported that he rated part of those data after he had completed his own dissertation. Although he felt clear about the definitions and followed the suggested structures for the rating process, his fatigue undoubtedly influenced his ratings. The matrix also revealed that the rating data from the rater who was in rehabilitation counseling and least familiar with the perceptual approach correlated more highly in many cases, particularly on the two dimensions with lowest

reliability, with each of the doctoral students in counselor education than they did with each other. Both were using perceptual dimensions in their dissertation research. Pearson correlation coefficients ranged from .146 to .577. The correlation data are shown in Table 3.

Results of the Analysis of the Data

Hypothesis 1: The relationship between the pre- and post-training perceptual field data in terms of change in direction on each of the seven dimensions.

The PDS data for the pre- and post-training conditions were analyzed using the Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test with designated significance level of .025, direction predicted, as described in Chapter III. Results of the analysis indicated no significant change in the desired direction on four of the seven dimensions:

Hypothesis 1C: Toward self as identified with people, rather than apart from people;

Hypothesis 1E: Toward holistic rather than detailed purposes in counseling;

Hypothesis 1F: Toward groundedness, rather than ungroundedness in experiencing;

Hypothesis 1G: Toward depth rather than surface dimension of experiencing.

Analysis of the data from three of the seven perceptual dimensions indicated no significant change but in a negative direction:

Hypothesis 1A: Toward external, rather than internal frame of reference;

Hypothesis 1B: Toward perceiving others as unable rather than able;

TABLE 3

Pearson Coefficients of Correlation for the Intra-Rater Reliability Study

Perceptual Dimension	Raters 1 & 2	Raters 1 & 3	Raters 2 & 3
With people/apart from people	.539	.472	.343
Process/content orientation*	.146	.185	.440
Grounded/ungrounded*	.181	.227	.397
Others as able/unable	.388	.395	.328
Holistic/detailed approach	.360	.298	.505
Depth/surface dimension	.447	.430	.577
Internal/external orientation	.548	.515	.408

*The dimensions with the lowest interrater reliabilities.

Hypothesis 1D: Toward content rather than process approach to counseling.

Results of the data analysis show that the null hypothesis of no significant change in the seven target perceptual dimensions must be accepted. The Wilcoxon Test statistic T, the related z values, and the level of significance p (see description and discussion on p. 78) are shown in Table 4.

Exploratory question 1: The relationship between pre- and post-training data from the POI.

The pre- and post-training data from the POI were analyzed using the Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test, as were the PDS data. The Wilcoxon T, the related z, and the p (level of significance) values are reported in Table 5. Change in the predicted positive direction was discovered in each of the seven dimensions, with significance at the chosen .025 level or better predicted direction in five of them: time competence, inner direction, valuing, self-perception, and interpersonal sensitivity. Total change, the sums of the values of the seven dimensions, was also tested indicating significant positive change, $p < .0002$.

Exploratory question 2: The relationship between the post-training peer perceptions of congruence (RI data) and post-training scores on the POI and the PDS.

I designed this question to deal with the issue of whether scores on a self-report instrument such as the POI would correlate positively with data representing peer perceptions of behavior and also with data inferred from written protocols. Theoretically, all of these instruments tap the same pool of phenomenological data dealing with personal congruence. Analysis of scores on these three variables using the Spearman Rank Correlation

TABLE 4

T, z, and p Values Testing the Significance of the Difference on Perceptual Dimensions Scales Using Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test

Hypothesis # and Perceptual Dimension		T-value	z-value	p (direction predicted)
1A	Internal/External	245	-.36*	>.10
1B	Able/Unable	191	-.85*	>.10
1C	With People/Apart from People	301.5	.70	>.10
1D	Process/Content	164.5	-.44*	>.10
1E	Holistic/Detailed	232.5	.67	>.10
1F	Grounded/Ungrounded	270	.43	>.10
1G	Depth/Surface	198	.11	>.10

*Change in direction opposite to prediction

TABLE 5

T, z, and p Values Testing Significance of Change on Seven Dimensions of the Personal Orientation Inventory, Using Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test

POI Dimension	T value	z value	p (direction predicted)
Time Competence	242.5	2.13	.02*
Inner Directed	421	3.88	.00005*
Valuing (existentiality)	334.5	2.99	.002*
Feeling (feeling reactivity/ spontaneity)	215.5	.28	>.10
Self-Perception (self-regard/ self-acceptance)	296.5	3.37	.0004*
Synergistic Awareness	115	1.28	.10
Interpersonal Sensitivity (acceptance of aggression/ capacity for intimate contact)	325.5	1.96	.025*
Total Change	335.5	3.60	.0002*

*Significant change in predicted direction

TABLE 6

Rho, t, and p Values Testing the Significance of Correlations of Post-Training Data from PDS and POI with Data from RI, Using Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient

Description	Rho	t	p (direction predicted)
PDS correlated with RI	.037	.203	>.10
POI correlated with RI	.152	.843	>.10

Coefficient Rho yielded positive but non-significant results. Thus, the null hypothesis must be accepted for this question. Table 6 reports results of the analysis.

Chapter V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Discussion of Results

In the major research component of the present study I explored the interface area between the theoretical positions of Rogers, Perls, and Combs, an area that can be subsumed under the construct of personal congruence. The study brought together the organismic theory of Rogers, the training methodology developed from Perls, and the research methodology of perceptual field dimensions as developed by Combs. Based upon the extent of the interface between these three educator-counselors, I hypothesized that the perceptual fields of students who experienced one quarter of Gestalt-oriented awareness training would change significantly in the direction designated by perceptual field research as characteristic of effective counselors. I chose seven dimensions of the perceptual field organization as targets; these related closely in content to the goals of the training.

The seven target dimensions were these: internal-external frame of reference; perceiving others as able-unable; self as identified with people-apart from people; process-content approach to counseling; purposes in counseling as holistic-detailed; self as grounded-ungrounded; and, depth-surface dimension of experiencing. The null hypothesis was that there would be no significant change in these dimensions; the prediction was that students' perceptual fields would change in the direction of internal frame of reference, perceiving others as able, self as identified with people, process approach to counseling, purposes as holistic, self as grounded, and depth dimension of experiencing.

I found no significant change ($p < .10$) on all seven of the target dimensions based on a study of the data collected and analyzed as described in Chapters III and IV. This finding, although disappointing, was not unexpected. Combs cautioned that change in core constructs happens slowly and that significant change might not occur in the three-month period covered by the study. This finding, however, differs from that of two other studies (Schoch, 1965; McKinnon, 1969) which reported some significant results from training programs covering similar time periods.

A review of Schoch's (1965) and McKinnon's (1969) studies revealed that each of them differed from the present study in important ways. Subjects for Schoch's study were a group of practicum counselors enrolled in the 1963 Summer Counselor Education Program at the University of Alabama. The intensive summer quarter training focused entirely upon practicum experiences; the subjects were enrolled in no other classes or training experiences. That kind of training contrasts markedly to the Gestalt-oriented training program in my study which was one part of a quarter's study in which students were enrolled in several other classes. Although the twice-weekly training classes were intense, many other experiences intervened between sessions. The training program used in McKinnon's study differed in content, using group counseling with practicum students as the treatment. However, the format was similar in that the training program was part of a semester's work with graduate students in counseling. McKinnon's results (positive and significant change in two dimensions) are based on a small sample, N = 7, which limits the power of the statistical tests.

There are two important differences between my study and the two just described: (1) the dimensions chosen for the studies, and (2) the data

source. For my study I used three recently developed dimensions (Swanson, 1975) along with four that have been used successfully in many studies. The new dimensions, grounded versus ungrounded in experience, process versus content in counseling orientation, and depth versus surface dimension of experiencing, deal with more central attitudes and constructs. While they relate closely to the awareness training which is the treatment modality in my study, they also might be expected to change more slowly. For data source both Schoch and McKinnon used verbal behavior in client interviews, while my study used Human Relations Incidents which could be (but were not required to be) counseling incidents. Most of the subjects in this study related personally important incidents that did not occur in counseling situations (see examples in Appendix C).

The importance of this variable in the results of the major research is underlined by feedback from the raters, all of whom indicated that in many cases the protocols did not give enough data for them to make confident ratings on the dimensions dealing with counseling. The dimensions on which reliability was lowest were two of those which dealt more specifically with the counseling process: process versus content orientation to and groundedness versus ungroundedness in experiencing within the counseling situation. It appears, then, that the source of data for inferential ratings is an important variable, possibly a key variable, in achieving significant results.

Positive change, although not statistically significant, was discovered in these four dimensions: self as identified with people, holistic purposes in counseling, groundedness in experiencing in counseling, and depth dimension of experiencing. The awareness training which is the treatment in this study can be seen to influence these dimensions of perception. Self-awareness

experiences were designed to deal with the first "two ways of knowing" (Rogers, 1959): the subjective experiencing states of the student, his sensations, perceptions, meanings and memories; and the subjective experiencing of another person, the empathic inferences or hypotheses about the subjective field of the other. Increased awareness of one's own sensations, perceptions, and ways of processing incoming data from the environmental field may, indeed, influence one's groundedness in experiencing and the depth to which he experiences. Depth in experiencing depends on openness to and awareness of feelings, thoughts, bodily sensations, perceptions; such openness and awareness was the goal for the Gestalt-oriented training (see the training exercise list in Appendix A). Groundedness is defined as tentativeness and simplicity in making "hunches" or hypotheses about the input from the environment, as following the emerging data closely rather than categorizing and theorizing or imposing constructs that are not based on immediate experience. Gestalt-oriented training such as that used in my study focuses on groundedness in both the awareness exercises and the therapeutic work that is done. In addition, increased awareness of the experiencing states of other persons is also one of the targets of the training; it may certainly be related to perceptions of oneself as identified with people, rather than apart from people. The positive change shown in these two dimensions may relate rather closely to awareness training.

The positive change toward a holistic approach in counseling may be related to the in-depth experiencing dimension of training and to awareness of the organismic base of Gestalt therapy. The depth dimension is holistic, rather than detailed. Details of the environment are perceived at the surface level of experiencing; at the deep level the organismic process is integrative

or holistic. The organismic processes with which Gestalt training is concerned are holistic processes. The basic assumption in Gestalt therapy is that a person is a whole person functioning in holistic ways.

However, Gestalt training also deals with detailing behaviors and perceptions, the third "way of knowing" (Rogers, 1959), as I have shown in Chapters I and II. Awareness training starts with differentiating and clarifying. Thus it is reasonable to discover change ($p < .10$) in a "negative" direction in the other three dimensions focused upon in this research project: toward external frame of reference, toward perceiving others as unable, and toward content approach to counseling. The awareness of perceptual data on which the Gestalt training focuses may lead initially to an external orientation. In fact, my personal experience and the reports of many others who have trained with me indicates that to be the case. In time, the basic orientation shifts internally with increased external awareness; however, the amount of time necessary for this shift is not known and probably differs for each individual. My research would indicate that three months is not long enough for most persons.

The shift toward a content approach can be explained on much the same ground. Much of the early awareness training focuses on awareness of the specific content in experiencing. Awareness of the underlying processes follows, and again, the time schedule is not known and is undoubtedly different for each individual.

The finding that subjects changed toward seeing others as unable is difficult to understand on the basis of the influence of Gestalt training. The Gestalt therapy assumption is that each person is "able"; that is, he has the necessary capabilities to live his life effectively and satisfyingly

and had learned how not to do so. Again, the change in the "negative" direction might be explained on the basis of a brief acquaintance with Gestalt principles. A more sound explanation probably lies in the dearth of data from the kind of written protocols elicited for the study. Many of the reported incidents dealt primarily with self-perceptions and experiences, with the role of other persons as incidental. A different kind of personal report would give more adequate data for inferences on this dimension.

One other factor should be cited in regard to the results of the study. The effects of history as defined by Campbell and Stanley (1963) were not controlled for in this study. That is, events outside the training situation could affect the subjects; such effects could not be known clearly nor could they be quantified. The accidental death of Dr. Sidney M. Jourard during the training time covered by my study significantly affected many of the subjects who were intimately involved with him in classes and seminars, and in graduate committee relationships. The experience of Dr. Jourard's death was related by several subjects in the post-training protocols; effects of the experience were undoubtedly reflected in many others. It is impossible to say what kind of effects or to what extent the subjects were affected by this shocking and unexpected event.

In my exploratory research I hypothesized that the Gestalt-oriented awareness training would be significantly related to change measured on the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI), an instrument developed by Shostrom (1966) to measure self-actualizing behavior as conceptualized by Perls, Rogers, and Maslow. In analyzing the data I discovered that change in the hypothesized direction, toward self-actualizing behavior and perceptions, was indicated on all of the general dimensions covered by the POI, with

significant change on five of them: time competence, inner direction, valuing, self-perception, and interpersonal sensitivity. Total change, defined as represented by the sum of the values of the seven items, was also significant at the .0002 level.

The greatest degree of change was related to inner directedness ($p < .00005$) and to self-regard and self-acceptance ($p < .0004$). These findings relate closely to the findings on the PDS data of positive change in groundedness and in the depth experiencing dimension, although the POI data deals with conscious awarenesses of these dimensions while the PDS data reflects inferences of pre-conscious states and attitudes. The next most significant change was reflected in existentiality ($p < .002$), defined as the tendency to be flexible in application of values. This result may reflect the influence of awareness training which focuses on perception without judgment.

The highly significant results from the POI data indicated that subjects saw themselves consciously as making greater positive changes than were reflected in the inferences based on their written reports. This discrepancy between overt behaviors or conscious perceptions and pre-conscious attitudes has been reported in a perceptual field study focused on this relationship (Dellow, 1971).

One interesting finding from analysis of the POI data supports the non-normality assumption on which this study is based. 99.03% of the dimensional data from the pre-training condition scaled at values above the adult norms (Shostrom, 1966).

A second exploratory research project dealt with the relationship between peer perceptions of congruent behavior and both the ratings of perceptual dimensions and the POI data taken at the end of the training

period. The data analysis indicated a positive but non-significant ($p > .10$) relationship in both cases. This finding echoed that reported above: perceptions of overt behaviors did not correlate significantly either with inferences of attitudes and inner states or with self-reports of attitudes and behaviors based on the kind of data used in this study.

Although I formulated no question related to correlation between the POI and PDS change data, I made a comparison between the summed change data from the two sources using the Spearman Rho statistic. The results of the analysis indicated a positive correlation with the level of significance of .08, direction predicted. Again the finding was that the data used for this study gave a positive but not significant relationship between the inferences about attitudes and inner states and the reports of conscious behaviors and attitudes.

Reliability of Ratings

Although with the non-parametric statistics used in my study, stringent reliability was not a critical factor, I wish to make some comments on the reliability issue in perceptual field research.

In previous studies utilizing the inferential perceptual field methodology (for example, Dedrick, 1972; Dellow, 1971; Vonk, 1970) a percentage of agreement method was used to determine interrater reliability. That is, if the ratings were within two points on a seven-point continuum, 75% of the time, the raters were considered to be reliable. The reliability data were given for ratings as a whole, rather than by discussion. Recently, two researchers have used the more stringent method I used in this study: Guilford's (1950) two-way analysis of variance technique (Jennings, 1973; Swanson, 1975). When stringent limits are applied, rater training and differences in

inferential processes among raters and among dimensions assumes a great deal of importance. I believe that further controlled research is needed to clarify the methodological issues relating to rater-training techniques and statistical techniques for reliability.

Furthermore, I believe that carefully controlled studies are in order to clarify the issue of what kind of person with what kind of background and training makes a better (i.e., more reliable) rater. Jennings (1973) used "minimally trained" students as raters; Swanson (1975) used highly trained graduate students with intense personal backgrounds in perceptual psychology. Swanson and Jennings both used the more stringent statistical reliability technique. Swanson reports difficulty in achieving reliability; Jennings does not. In my own study, as I have reported in Chapter IV, I used three highly trained raters, two of whom had intense personal backgrounds in perceptual psychology and one of whom demonstrated understanding without personal involvement. My reliability study indicated that the two raters with intense personal involvements correlated less highly with each other than either of them did with the rater who did not have that background. Although there are, of course, many factors which impinge upon the rating process itself, it does appear that there may be a limit to the level of involvement in the perceptual field methodology for a person to be able to make reliable ratings. I recommend controlled research to study this issue further.

Certainly, as I have indicated several times, the data source is an important, perhaps the key, variable in reliability issues. A study designed to clarify the differences in rating various dimensions from various kinds of data sources would be extremely helpful for future research in perceptual field organization.

Conclusions

As noted in Chapter III, the results of this two-cell study have limited application. I have engaged in action research rather than experimental research. Thus, two limitations are immediately apparent. First, causality cannot be assumed. Gestalt-oriented training cannot be said to cause the phenomena discovered by the data analysis. Second, the results are not generalizable to a "general population" but apply only to other training programs in similar situations with similar student populations. These limitations do not invalidate the study (Stanley, 1967). Neither attributions of causality nor generalization to larger populations were intended. I dealt with a different question: Is a carefully planned Gestalt-oriented training program related to "positive" changes in attitudes and perceptions of the student-subjects, defining "positive" as change in the direction of perceptions found to be characteristic of effective helpers. Counselor educators are and should be interested in all such questions related to change in counselors-in-training.

In the present research study, I discovered that positive but non-significant ($p > .10$) change did occur on four of the target dimensions: self as identified with people, holistic purposes in counseling, groundedness in experiencing in counseling, and depth dimension of experiencing. I have discovered negative but non-significant ($p > .10$) change on three of the target dimensions: toward external frame of reference, toward perceiving others as unable, and toward content approach to counseling. I have discussed some possible explanations for these results.

In the exploratory phase of this research study, I discovered that positive change was indicated by the data from the POI, with highly significant

results on three general dimensions: inner directedness ($p < .0005$), self-regard and self-acceptance ($p < .0004$), and existentiality ($p < .002$). Significant change was indicated on two others: time competence (p .02) and interpersonal sensitivity ($p < .025$). The summed data indicated highly significant change ($p < .0002$). I found a positive but non-significant ($p > .10$) correlation between peer perceptions of congruent behavior and both the reports of self-actualizing behavior and inferred perceptual field characteristics. These findings support the research studies that indicate the lack of correlation between inferred perceptual field characteristics and reports of overt behaviors.

Two aspects of the study have emerged as deserving of particular attention. In the first place, the study supports Combs' (1970) statement that core constructs change slowly. A study of change desired to cover a longer period of time would possibly reflect different and interesting changes in perceptual field. Such a study is currently underway testing the subjects in this study who remain through the entire nine-month training program. This study may yield such different and interesting results.

In the second place, the data source for perceptual field inferences must be carefully structured so that raters have sufficient data for the kinds of inferences they are asked to make. While inferential methodology is a projective technique and the data sources for projective techniques must be vague and ambiguous (Combs and Snygg, 1959), sufficient data must be available. My opinion is that the Human Relations Incident is not appropriate for inferences related to attitudes toward counseling or perceptions of self and others in the counseling setting. Some direction that the incidents relate to a counseling experience needs to be added to the data source

structure. This issue must finally be resolved through a research study that focuses upon it.

One further comment is in order here. Although every control was used to make the rating process easy and valid, the experience of the raters in this study points to the need for controlled studies of the rating process itself and to the kind of person who may make the most reliable rater in order to make rating more reliable, raters more effective, and the rating process more efficient.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

GESTALT AWARENESS EXERCISES

Introductory Gestalt Awareness Exercises

Vernon Van de Riet

Preface

In all of these exercises I would prefer that you not judge what you do or the way you do it as good or bad, right or wrong, healthy or sick, or any of your other favorite categories. I invite you to simply pay attention to what your experience is and accept how you are and what you do as the way you are at this moment.

Beginning exercises to be done as Group Rounds

1. Simply go around with everyone giving their names.

2. Give your name and tell one nice thing about yourself--something you like about yourself.

3. Name and what you want or what you expect out of this course this quarter.

4. Rounds designed to teach the concept of Now or present experience. I invite you to tell how you felt when you arrived at the group, how you felt just before you started to talk, and how you are feeling right now at this moment as you are talking. (Notice if the person gives a thought or a perception as opposed to a feeling and simply say, that's a thought, what are your feelings).

Note: In all of these beginning exercises, if there is opportunity, stroke or reinforce the person for insight or clarity or motivation or whatever seems strokable to you. Do this particularly for students who seem scared, shy or needy.

Gestalt Awareness Exercises to teach Gestalt concepts

1. Learning to contact and be in touch with the present experience. "Close your eyes--become aware of how you are feeling, any body tension, any tightness, joy, excitement, fear, nervousness, tiredness, etc." (Allow a minute or so for this). "Now take a body position that matches with your feelings or that best expresses how you feel at this moment. Again pay attention to any tension you have and notice your breathing and what happens to your breathing. Now slowly change to the position you consider to be opposite of that position or to express the feeling state opposite to your present feeling state. Notice any changes and what happens as you shift from one position to another. Change back and forth between these positions and attend to your internal experience as you do."

2. Pick a person in a group you either do not know or do not know well. Spend one minute with them in a non-verbal way getting to know them in anyway

you choose. For the first minute one of you will be the aggressor and the other one will play the passive role. Notice how you decide between yourselves who will be the aggressor first. Now switch so that the other person is the aggressor. Remember you are not to use any words.

Pick another person who you don't know very well, do the same experiment, only this time there are no rules except that you do not use words. Use any means with which you are comfortable to get to know your partner.

3. Walk slowly around the room in and out among each other and make eye contact with those you meet. Do not touch them, do not speak. As you make eye contact be aware within yourself if you are judging this person in anyway, and how you judge the person you meet. Notice what prejudices you may have toward them. Notice if you want to move towards them or move away from them. What do you think about them; what do you feel about them; note what you are responding to that you see in the other person. Note what you are responding to that comes from inside of you. (After a few minutes, "Now notice how you are preventing yourself from becoming open to the other people in the group." Take about ten seconds of eye contact with each person as you pass them.)

4. Thumb wrestling: Find a partner and have a thumb wrestling match. Go through three trials. Demonstrate. After the experience is completed the leader can make some comments to this effect: "I am going to make some statements that may or may not fit with your experience." (Add in for yourself what was your experience). "I wanted to win, I formed strategies, I felt sorry for my partner, I felt stronger than my partner, I felt weak, helpless, being pinned down was okay, I wanted desperately to win," etc.

5. Hand communication. Find a partner you do not know very well. As soon as you find him sit down facing him and close your eyes. Now, I want you to get to know all about your partner through his hands (give about two minutes for everyone to get to know each other through their hands).

Experiment with strength. Show your partner how strong you are and feel your partner's strength.

Show each other love.

Have a wrestling match.

Make up.

Have a dance.

Express whatever you want to express.

Say good-bye.

Get together with another couple and introduce your partner to that couple from what you have learned about him through his or her hands. (If a group is small enough do this in the whole group.)

6. Pick a partner. Make up several sentences: "I make myself miserable by . . ." and finish the sentence. Each partner do this for about two minutes, then stop and change all of the sentences to: "I choose to continue to . . ." and repeat all the things you have just said before. Ask your partner for help in remembering what you said the first time around. Then change to bragging about yourself: "I'm a fine and okay person; I . . ." and continue to tell your partner what a good person you are and how you feel good about yourself. After the experiment invite the people to notice whether it was easier for them to talk about making themselves miserable or about how good a person they are.

7. Differentiate between perception and thinking or imagination. Pick a partner and say, "I see and I imagine . . ." Have the partners alternate sentences. Demonstrate.

8. Awareness continuing. Have partners alternate sentences beginning with, "Now I am aware of . . ." Invite them to notice if what they are aware of is outside of themselves, inside of themselves, or is thinking, fantasy, feeling or perception.

9. I have to choose and . . .

10. Pick a partner, and I want one of you to become an autistic child going through some form of autistic behavior. Exaggerate and become as autistic as you know how without disrupting the other people, furniture, etc. The task of the other person is to make contact with that autistic child and do it without words and without force or use of the hands for grasping.

11. Experiment with awareness showing that we can choose what to be aware of. Awareness is like a movie camera; it takes in all that goes on, does not change, categorize, or order this awareness in anyway. Awareness simply takes in what is.

(a) Pay attention to what you hear.
(b) Notice your feet. Put your attention in your feet.
(c) Be aware of what you see.
(d) Be aware of any feelings in your stomach.
(e) Be aware of any thought and fantasies as they go through your head.
(f) Be aware of what you are feeling in your chest.

12. "I can't and I won't . . . ." (Stevens, 1971, p. 75)

13. "I want to and I won't . . . ." "I would like to and I prevent myself from . . . ."

Fantasy Trips

Vernon Van de Riet

1. Go through a typical day in your life (do this at a slow and fairly detailed pace. Begin by getting up in the morning, go through how you felt, what you saw, what you did, routine tasks, everyday tasks; then go hour-by-hour until you go to bed.)

Then be re-born and grow up as a child of the opposite sex. First, be at your birth with your parents there. What are they saying, what are they thinking, what do they feel. Invite other significant people to be around. What are they saying; what are they thinking; what do they feel. Then grow up slowly year-by-year until you come to be your present age.

Next, relive a typical day of a person of the opposite sex, again going through getting up in the morning, hour-by-hour.

2. Next, a series of fantasy trips designed by Dr. Ed Frost. "Get comfortable, allow your body to relax; notice any tension you feel, allow that tension to disappear. Again make yourself comfortable; now allow your feelings to relax and to be calm; allow your mind to relax, to be at peace. Go inside yourself.

(a) Blackboard and numbers experiment: Go inside yourself. Imagine a blackboard in front of you. Imagine three numbers appearing on the blackboard. Now allow these three numbers to interact in anyway you want them to.

(b) Go inside yourself. Imagine a little baby, walk around him, just look at him, notice anything that is happening in your fantasy.

(c) An old man.
(d) A flower.
(e) A dragon.
(f) A fairy

Allow them to interact in anyway they want to.

3. Go inside yourself. Imagine yourself in a meadow. Notice a mountain nearby. There is a path leading to the mountain. Now climb halfway up that mountain. You notice a nice sitting stone there. Sit down and look over the view. Notice where you came from. Now you see a child coming towards you. You notice that it's you as a younger child. Allow to happen between you whatever you want to happen. (Option here: notice any resentments you have for each other, appreciations, demands; are you willing to let go of your resentments and demands, to forgive the other and let them be what they are. Notice any feelings of love and gratefulness). Say good-bye. Walk back down to the meadow.

4. Go inside yourself. Imagine you are a small child in front of a door. Sit down on the doorstep outside the door. Inside the room there are many people. While sitting on the doorstep, imagine what you would most like to happen if you were to enter that room with all those people; what you would like to have them say about you, feel about you, think about you, and what you would like to have them do with you and/or to you. Allow your imagination as much run as you are able. Now go inside and allow all of your imaginings to come true. (Have the individual share with the group what happened by acting it out with no words).

5. Go inside yourself. Imagine yourself to be in a beautiful meadow; off to the side is a mountain. There is a path going up the mountain. Slowly walk up the path up the mountain. As you go you notice a house. Walk up to the house, explore around it, look behind it; notice if there are any other buildings, what is there. Go into the house and explore through the house. Now imagine you find a stairway that goes down into a basement. Go down the stairs into the basement and explore. In a corner you notice a table. Approach the table; as you get near it you notice an object on the table. Pick up the object. Come back up the stairs, then slowly walk outside in front of the house. Imagine it is a beautiful sunshiny day and you are standing in the bright sunshine. Imagine that the object has a message for you. Hold it above your head and allow the radiation of the sun to change it. Notice what happens.

Now finish anything you feel unfinished about with the house. Say good-bye to the house. Walk down the mountain to the meadow. Spend some time in the meadow doing whatever you want to do.

6. Same fantasy with the house, only this time you meet a very wise old guru who has the answers to your most important questions. Imagine meeting the guru, sit down and imagine yourself having a conversation. Ask him two or three of the most important questions you have and allow him to answer them in any way he chooses. Go outside into the sunshine, absorb what he has told you, throw away whatever does not fit. Return to the meadow.

APPENDIX B

HUMAN RELATIONS INCIDENT FORM AND EXAMPLES

Subject Code_____

Human Relations Incident

A counselor or therapist must focus on relationships with or interaction with other people. From your experience think of a significant past event which involved you and one or more other persons. That is, from a human relations standpoint, select some event that had special meaning and personal significance for you. You may use an experience that is related to your counseling experience or a therapy situation, although any situation of this sort that you have had to deal with in your lifetime is acceptable.

In writing about this event, please follow this format:

First, describe the situation as it occured at that time.

Second, what did you do in that particular situation?

Third, how did you feel about the particular situation at the time you were experiencing it? What were your personal reactions?

Fourth, how do you feel about the particular situation now?

It will be helpful if you describe the thoughts and feelings of yourself and the other individual involved as well as objectively describing the situation.

Example A

Situation: The event took place in Vietnam and my unit had just been shelled by the Viet Cong. It was late at night and I had been asleep when the attack began. The attack is over, the all-clear has been sounded, and I'm talking with the man in the next room.

What did I do? I expressed my complete awe over the fact that someone I did not know, and wished no harm, had attempted to kill me. I totally disclosed this feeling of disbelief and lack of understanding.

How did I feel? I felt good about expressing the way I felt and very open. Even though I was with another person I felt very alone.

How do I feel now? I feel about the same now as I did then. The futility of what was going on is still something that I can't explain. The best way to describe my feelings then and now is calmness and awe.

Situation: My Master's thesis orals. Attending were myself, the three members of my committee, and one faculty guest.

What did I do? I answered questions presented to me as best I could and tried to appear calm and in control. I attempted to look casual and sure of myself without looking as if I was cocky or didn't care.

How did I feel? I felt very nervous, tight, small and ignorant at first but as time went on and I realized that the group was friendly, I began to feel more comfortable and physically cooler. I relaxed, my speech flowed better, and I felt calm.

How do I feel now? I feel that my anxiety was important because it kept me on my toes and alert, and was not inhibiting, but that it was also totally unwarranted.

Example B

I was at a family gathering for Thanksgiving. I was talking with some of my younger cousins, one of whom has a good/best friend who is black. This cousin's parents are as racially prejudiced as almost anyone I've ever encountered.

I was very interested in how this friendship developed. I asked her questions about that, about how her father was reacting, how she felt about the whole thing. I felt extremely sympathetic and concerned for her in this situation. I wanted to tell her to start getting jobs so she can become as independent (financially and emotionally) of her family as soon as possible. I refrained. I was really excited that there was someone else in my family

who seems really straight-forward and determined to do what she wants to do and think for herself. I want to be supportive of her in doing that.

I think that she was really glad to talk to me about this and not be put down for it. I got back in touch with other "girl adolescent-type" problems -- boyfriends, not having dates, growing up, getting married (vs. going to college). I'm beginning to believe that some of my family members have some things in common with me -- important things like values. I felt really moved by this encounter.

I returned home from Thanksgiving vacation to discover that my boyfriend had moved out while I was gone and left me a note explaining why. I wandered around the apartment in a stupor, tried to call motels to locate his parents. He then wandered in, we got some wine and talked civily and honestly with each other.

I felt numb and rather detached and totally shocked. I was hurt. I cried. I felt somewhat relieved of a burden. I got drunk and became more emotionally expressive, mainly in terms of being more in touch with what he meant to me and expressing this to him. I did not feel angry, nor did I react that way. I wanted him to do whatever he needed to do.

At present, I am still somewhat amazed at that impulsive move. I am also amazed that I didn't become angry and I'm a little suspicious of my understanding and caring reaction, and I believe it was genuine, it seems quite unlike the traditional me. I feel good about my reaction to the situation. I feel stronger and able to cope (especially better than in the past). I am aware that I am able to cope with this kind of extremely difficult situation and I am aware of wanting to structure my life so that I won't find myself in a position where I have (need) to deal with this kind of difficult situation. I feel strongly enough about this to try to figure out some way to make the chances of this happening again less likely.

The thoughts and feelings of the other person seemed to be like mine, in terms of numbness, caring. He felt some guilt, MUCH CONFUSION, and seemed to not know what he was doing, whether it was "the right thing to do" or not.

APPENDIX C

PERCEPTUAL DIMENSIONS SCALES

Subject Code_____

Rater_____

Perceptual Dimensions Scale

Process/Content

Process: The counselor trainee has a dynamic rather than a static approach to his experiencing. He is primarily concerned with understanding his experiencing within the context and sequence that it occurs rather than in the abstract. He is concerned with the transitional aspects of experience, with the "how" rather than the "what" aspects of his experiencing.

Content: The counselor trainee has a static rather than a dynamic approach to his experiencing. He is primarily concerned with analyzing his experiencing into fixed bits of information. In his approach, interpretations are abstracted out so that the sequential and immediate aspects of his experiencing are lost. The counselor trainee is primarily concerned with the "what" rather than the "how" aspects of his experiencing.

Process — Content

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Perceptions of Purposes

Holistic: The counselor trainee is sensitive to and concerned with the basic overriding themes and framework of his experiences. He takes a broad approach, synthesizing. He seeks a grasp of the whole from which the details are organized in order to understand the situations better. He is concerned with larger meanings, broader categories.

Detailed: The counselor trainee is primarily concerned with details and specifics. He takes an analytically atomistic approach, focusing on isolated units. Taking a narrow approach to experience, he is concerned with smaller meanings.

Holistic — Detailed

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Subject Code_____

Rater_____

Perceptual Dimensions Scale

Internal/External Frame of Reference

Internal: The counselor trainee is sensitive to and concerned with how things seem to others. This sensitivity and concern for the perceptions (thoughts, values, feelings) of others serves as a basis for understanding the behavior of others.

External: The counselor trainee is insensitive to and unconcerned with how things seem to others. Rather than be concerned with the perceptions (thoughts, values, feelings) of others, the counselor trainee is concerned primarily with external behavior.

Internal External

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Perceptions of Self

With people: The counselor trainee sees himself as a part of mankind, as identified with people and with groups. He perceives himself as deeply and meaningfully related to diverse persons and groups.

Apart from people: The counselor trainee sees himself as apart, removed, withdrawn, or alienated from other people. He perceives himself as not deeply identified or involved with diverse groups or persons.

With people Apart from people

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Subject Code_____

Rater_____

Perceptual Dimensions Scale

Grounded/Ungrounded

Grounded: The counselor trainee makes simple and tentative hunches which follow directly from and are closely tied to his direct experiencing of himself and the world. He focuses more on following the emerging data rather than on abstract theorizing. Theorizing is kept subordinate to experience.

Ungrounded: The counselor trainee engages primarily in abstract theoretical elaborations leaving the direct experiencing of himself and the world far behind. He spends most of his time categorizing and construct building, logical fitting games that are not closely tied to his experiencing. He structures his experiencing around his theorizing, confidently postulating complex theories on the basis of little or no data.

Grounded — Ungrounded

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Perceptions of Other Persons

Able: The counselor trainee sees others as having the necessary capacities to deal effectively with their problems. He trusts their ability to make their own decisions, handle crises, and run their own lives. He notices the strengths as well as the weaknesses in others and focuses on the use of their strengths to overcome weaknesses and bring about positive change.

Unable: The counselor trainee sees others as lacking the necessary capacities to deal effectively with their problems. He doubts their ability to make their own decisions, handle crises, and run their own lives. He focuses on the weaknesses of others; overlooking their strengths, he doubts their capacity to make positive changes.

Able — Unable

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Subject Code_____

Rater_____

Perceptual Dimensions Scale

Depth/Surface

Depth: The counselor trainee moves deeply into unknown areas and explores the subtle, vague, implicit aspects of his experiencing in order to gain a clearer and more thorough understanding of his experiences.

Surface: The counselor trainee remains within the clear, distinct, factual, and explicit areas of his experience. The vague and unknown are left out so that experiences can be kept within the bounds of a pre-set system.

Depth						Surface
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX D

BARRETT-LENNARD RELATIONSHIP INVENTORY

CONGRUENCE SUB-SCALE

BARRETT-LENNARD RELATIONSHIP INVENTORY
(OS-M-64, Korb)

Student Rated_____Date_____

Below are listed a variety of ways that one person may feel or behave in relation to another. Please consider each statement with reference to your present relationship with the student you are rating.

Mark each statement in the left margin, according to how strongly you feel that it is true, or not true, in this relationship. Please mark every one. Write in +3, +2, +1, or -1, -2, -3, to stand for the following answers:

+3: Yes, I strongly feel that is true.
+2: Yes, I feel it is true.
+1: Yes, I feel that is probably true, or more true than untrue.
-1: No, I feel that is probably untrue, or more untrue than true.
-2: No, I feel it is not true.
-3: No, I strongly feel that it is not true.

_____1. He is comfortable and at ease in our relationship.

_____2. I feel that he puts on a role in front with me.

_____3. I feel that he is real and genuine with me.

_____4. It makes him uneasy when I ask or talk about certain things.

_____5. I nearly always feel that what he says expresses exactly what he is feeling and thinking as he says it.

_____6. He wants me to think that he likes me or understands me more than he really does.

_____7. He does not avoid anything that is important for our relationship.

_____8. Sometimes he is not at all comfortable but we go on, outwardly ignoring it.

_____9. He expressed his true impressions and feelings with me.

_____10. At times I sense that he is not aware of what he is really feeling with me.

_____11. He is willing to express whatever is actually in his mind with me, including any feelings about himself or about me.

_____12. He is openly himself in our relationship.

_____13. There are times when I feel that his outward response to me is quite different from the way he feels underneath.

_____14. I have not felt that he tries to hide anything from himself that he feels with me.

_____15. What he says to me often gives a wrong impression of his whole thought or feeling at the time.

_____16. I believe that he has feelings he does not tell me about that are causing difficulty in our relationship.

November 1974

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

I (my family and friends call me "Pat") was born on January 7, 1920, at Manilla, Iowa, a town distinguished then by being the train change-point on the Milwaukee Railroad for which my dad worked. I attended elementary and secondary schools in Iowa, Florida (during the boom years of the 1920's), and Missouri, graduating valedictorian of my class at Cameron High School, Cameron, Missouri, in 1935. I have the distinction of being the youngest valedictorian that high school has ever had. In 1939 I earned an A.B. cum laude in English and music theory from John Fletcher College, University Park, Iowa. Then I taught all things to all kinds of students in small high schools and junior high schools in Iowa for three years just before World War II.

Marriage and World War II expanded my horizons immediately and drastically and positively; I went to California to live in San Francisco for one year, Sacramento for one year, and then Palo Alto for twenty years. While rearing my family I worked as a church executive/financial secretary and as a research assistant in the Radio Physics Laboratory at Stanford Research Institute in Menlo Park, California. At S.R.I. I participated in extremely interesting studies of aurora, meteors, and other phenomena related to the physics of the upper atmosphere. I also served as a volunteer teacher and administrator in church youth programs for more than twenty years, learning a great deal about the church, about theology, about youth, about teaching, about administering, and about myself -- all the hard way.

In 1961 I also returned to graduate school at San Jose State College and had the distinct experience of "coming home." At San Jose State I earned

credits toward a California General Secondary Teacher Credential. In 1968, in a synchronous (Jung's definition) move to Gainesville, I enrolled as a graduate student in English at the University of Florida. Two years later I received an M.A. in English, for my thesis using the psychological theory of George Kelly as an entree to the poetry of Wallace Stevens. I am proud of that piece of work. I then transferred to the College of Education following the suggestion of Dr. Sidney Jourard, with whom I had been working, and in 1973 I received the E.D.S. and M.Ed. degrees in Counselor Education.

During the years while studying Counselor Education, I worked as a graduate teaching assistant on a federally-funded project for training in programming in campus community mental health at the Student Mental Health Service, Infirmary, University of Florida. I also interned there and in all of these relationships I learned a very great deal. The experience there was extremely valuable to me. During the past year I have worked as an English instructor and research coordinator for a Title III model program in skills acquisition at Santa Fe Community College, Gainesville, Florida.

Also during the past five years I have studied and trained in Gestalt Therapy, helping to design and co-leading the graduate training program which is the subject for this dissertation and in which I devoutly believe. In Gestalt Therapy theory and practice I have found a personal and professional "home."

Through all the past years music has been a source of strength, of personal fulfillment, and of the best kind of personal therapy. I play the recorder, piano and guitar but I sing soprano better than I play. I have participated in many very satisfying musical activities including singing in a madrigal group, in J.S. Bach's "Passion According to St. Matthew" and

"B Minor Mass," and singing folk songs, Bob Dylan, Joni Mitchell, Leonard Cohen and such, accompanying myself (and anyone who would join) on my guitar for the enjoyment and edification of freshman English classes, Gestalt training classes, and countless get-togethers with friends and fellow workers. My musical tastes are both catholic and critical.

I have two children, John and Mitzi, both of age now, both very dear to me, and both strong supporters and very proud of their mom's getting her Ph.D.

I belong to the American Personnel and Guidance Association for professional reasons and to the Association for Humanistic Psychology for both personal and professional ones.

This year my home is in Gainesville, Florida. Next year is yet to come.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Richard H. Johnson, Chairman
Assistant Professor of Education

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

William E. Kline
Associate Professor of Education

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Vernon Van De Riet
Assistant Professor of Psychology
and Clinical Psychology

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Gordon E. Bigelow
Professor of English

This dissertation was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the College of Education and to the Graduate Council, and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

June, 1975

B. J. Sharf & M C Baker
Dean, College of Education

Dean, Graduate School